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**THE PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN COMMUNITY COLLEGE
PRESIDENTS CONCERNING THEIR LEADERSHIP STYLES AND USE OF
POWER**

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POWER**

by

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Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements

For the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

December 2003

UMI Number: 3117825



UMI Microform 3117825

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving wife Madelyn, for her belief in me and for her continuous support.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this project involves many individuals who are a vital part of its success. I sincerely express my appreciation and gratitude to the African American community college presidents who took time from their busy schedules to participate in this endeavor.

A very special thanks goes to my mentor and chair of my committee, Dr. Donald Phelps, for his guidance and direction in assisting me through the dissertation process. Many thanks are also due to Dr. John Roueche for stepping in at a critical time to provide leadership and support to my project on behalf of Dr. Phelps. I thank Dr. Norvell Northcutt for his patience, wisdom, and support.

I owe a great deal to three individuals who worked hard to keep me on track especially when I would veer from moving from “Point A” to “Point B.” They are Dr. Luke Robins (roomie), Dr. Cindra Smith, and Dr. Cindy Miles. Thank you for always being there for me.

Appreciation goes to my friends at North Lake College who supported me and a special thanks also goes to Dr. Phyllis Elmore, Dr. Paul Kelemen, Lynda Edwards, Zena Jackson, Larry Johnson, Deborah Sparkman, and Janice Lefler for their support.

Finally, a thank you goes to my family and friends whose genuine love continually motivated me.

**THE PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN COMMUNITY COLLEGE
PRESIDENTS CONCERNING THEIR LEADERSHIP STYLES AND USE OF
POWER**

Publication No. _____

**Clarence Edward Ates, Ph.D.
The University of Texas at Austin, 2003**

Supervisor: John E. Roueche

This study examined the perceptions of African American community college presidents concerning their leadership styles and the use of power. The major objective of this study was to investigate how African American community college presidents characterized themselves regarding these two issues. Two instruments were used to collect data. First, the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self was used to investigate participants' perceptions relating to leadership styles. Second, the Power Perception Profile (PPP) Perception of Self was used to explore participants' perceptions of their use of power. Both instruments were developed by the Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California. At the time of this study there were approximately 61 African American community college presidents. All were asked to become a participant in this research project; however, only 39 individuals (63.9 %) chose to participate. Participants were identified from the Directory of African American

Chief Executive Officers published by the President's Roundtable, an affiliate of the National Council on Black American Affairs.

Data collected from the LEAD-Self instrument indicated that more than 50% of the African American presidents' primary leadership style was "Selling." That is, they tended to influence the actions of their followers by using behaviors that explain, persuade, and clarify. Their secondary leadership style was "Participating." Leaders utilizing this style tended to integrate behavior patterns that promoted collaboration, facilitation, and support.

Data collected from the PPP-Self indicated that subjects perceived themselves to be using Expert Power (relevant education, experience, and expertise) and Information Power (perceived access to or possession of useful information) to influence followers. The data also indicated that subjects perceived that other individuals in similar positions used Expert and Informational Power to a lesser degree.

Data collected from this study revealed little to no significant relationships between selected demographic characteristics and subjects' perceptions of leadership and power. Demographic data yielded no new information and mirrored data produced by other researchers (Vaughan & Wiesman, 1998; McFarlin, et al., 1999).

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction to the Study

The subject of leadership in higher education has been studied by many researchers over the years (Beechler, 1993; Bensimon, 1989; Birnbaum, 1989; Fincher, 1988; Kirkland & Ratcliff, 1994; Levin, 1995; Roe & Baker, 1989; Selman & Wilmoth, 1993; Whisnant, 1990). In many studies researchers are concerned with the characteristics of effective presidential leadership in education. Birnbaum (1989) indicates that among the many human behavioral traits, leadership is very complex and therefore difficult to study. In his view, there is no universal agreement among scholars regarding the definition of effective presidential leadership; neither is there consensus regarding how presidential leadership is measured, assessed, or linked to outcomes. Bennis and Nanus (1985) assert that there is no clearly understandable difference between leaders and non-leaders or between effective and ineffective leaders.

Although precise definitions and clear-cut behaviors associated with presidential leadership may vary significantly from individual to individual and from institution to institution, Darling and Brownlee (1982) nevertheless argue that leadership plays a critical role in determining the success or failure of an academic institution. They explain that effective leadership in academia serves as an interactive force interrelated with the achievement of the institution. In their opinion, those presidents whose institutions are judged successful receive merit and distinction, and those presidents who serve institutions that are not judged successful feel the burden of failure.

The mission and nature of community colleges are unique in that they offer educational opportunities to nearly anyone from their communities who can benefit from instruction. In this respect, other institutions of higher education (state and private) may have more restrictive entry criteria. Given this community-centered mission, the president of a community college serves as a visible connection between the community and the college. Therefore, the president must lead the college as both educator and community leader. The degree to which any president is successful appears to be connected to the president's leadership ability in influencing others to fulfill institutional aims (Beehler, 1993).

Levin (1995) reported that presidents significantly influence college policy development governing relations with college employees, as well as the college's public image. Glueck (1977) suggests that success in regard to institutional outcomes and employee satisfaction is greatly influenced by the interactive behavior of the institution's key leader, the president. Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) imply that successful leadership is "the ability of the community college CEO to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of others by working with and through them in order to accomplish the college's mission and purpose" (p. 11).

Power, Influence, and Leadership

What qualities of leadership enable a president to accomplish goals with and through people? Yukl (1994) states, "The essence of leadership is influence over followers" (p. 193). Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) suggest that leadership is a method of influencing people, and *power* (influence potential) is the means that makes it

possible for a leader to achieve conformity and agreement from others. Robbins (1993) states, “Leaders use power as a means of attaining group goals . . . and power is a means of facilitating their achievement” (p. 408). Vaughan (1994) indicates that the use of power is never simple and that wise presidents are acutely cognizant of the fact that power is a tool used to accomplish the institution’s mission. Therefore, it seems that a president’s leadership abilities involve *power* and *influence* strategies to engage others in achieving the goals and mission of the institution.

Throughout history, issues regarding power have been of keen interest to tribal chiefs, medicine men, kings, priests, and philosophers (Bass, 1990). Grimes (1978) suggests that power is conceivably humanity’s most universal social experience. He argues that “the consequences of power are experienced at every level of social organization, but most extensively experienced now in formal organizations at all levels of hierarchy” (p.724).

The concept of power has been a topic of study since the early developments of social science as a discipline (Fairholm, 1993). According to Fairholm, researchers from the 1930s through current times have had widely divergent areas of focus regarding the subject of power. He indicates that studies of power include sociological importance, political aspects, behavioral and psychological approaches, and organizational and/or structural viewpoints.

Steers and Black (1994) state that researchers have attempted to identify the various bases of power. Steers and Black point to Etzioni’s (1964) three types of power--coercive, utilitarian, and normative--as one model for understanding the use of power in

organizations and argue that “organizations can be classified according to which of the three types of power is most prevalent” (p. 524). Steers and Black also suggest that a model advanced by French and Raven (1959) may be more useful in comprehending the manner in which power can be exercised in organizational situations. French and Raven’s model identifies five principal bases of power: referent, expert, legitimate, reward, and coercive.

Birnbaum (1989) investigated implicit leadership theories of college and university presidents to ascertain just how presidents reflect various models of organizational leadership. He reported that most of the presidents who participated in the study described leadership from the perspective of power and influence. Based on those descriptions, Birnbaum argues that there are two major theoretical orientations to power and influence. In the first orientation, the leader uses various sources of social power in a one-way attempt to influence others. According to Birnbaum,

Leaders can influence others through their offices because of the authority provided by our social and legal systems (legitimate power); through their ability to provide rewards (reward power); through threatened punishments (coercive power); through their perceived expertise (expert power); and as others personally identify with and like them (referent power; p. 128).

In the second orientation to power and influence, Birnbaum suggests that a president’s relationship with subordinates can result in an interdependent influence through social exchange. In his opinion, social power theories such as French and Raven’s (1959) emphasize one-way influence, and social exchange theories emphasize

two-way mutual and reciprocal relationships by which leaders provide needed resources to others in exchange for their approval and compliance with the leader's demands.

According to Yukl (1994), "the most fundamental form of social interaction is an exchange of benefits or favors, which can include not only material benefits but also psychological benefits such as expressions of approval, respect, esteem, and affection" (p. 209).

Moorehead and Griffin (1992) propose another approach to categorizing organizational power. They argue that organizational power can be positional, that is, "residing in the position, regardless of the person holding the job" (p. 290), or personal, "residing in the person, regardless of his or her position in the organization" (p. 291). Notwithstanding the divergence of thought and ideas regarding the concepts of power, Ivancevich and Matteson (1990) hold that "power facilitates the organization's adaptation to its environment. How power is obtained in an organization depends to a large extent upon the type of power being sought" (p. 348).

Clearly, power is pivotal in understanding leadership, and a parallel relationship exists between understanding power and its use, and leadership and what leaders do. Accordingly, continued research of the existence and use of power in organizational settings will provide insight and clarity into how leaders think and what they do in exercising leadership (Fairholm, 1993).

African Americans in Higher Education

Ramey (1995) noted that top-level institutional administrators in higher education are mostly European American males. According to Crase (1994), researchers have

expressed their ideas regarding the lack of African American representation within higher educational institutions. Blake (1987) argues that significant effort should be made in all areas of education to increase the numbers of African Americans participating in the field. Furthermore, Bridges (1996) states that “to retain African American professionals in all areas of society, a concerted effort must be made with young African Americans to prepare them so that they may replace retiring and exiting professionals and to motivate them to do so” (p. 749).

Despite the increased need for African American participation in top levels of institutional leadership, Moses (1993) indicates that there are at least three institutional barriers that impede the progress of minorities who aspire to leadership positions: (a) administrators and faculty are unprepared to reorganize institutional operations around issues of cultural diversity; (b) administrators and faculty are relatively comfortable with the *status quo* and are therefore resistant to change for fear that cultural diversity will interrupt life in the academy as they perceive it; and (c) administrators and faculty continue to accept stereotypes that minorities are not competent to handle top administrative responsibilities.

As local community demographics change, and ethnic and cultural diversity increases, community colleges will feel the impact of this transition. Significant representation of African American administrators (including presidents) in higher education is a pressing need in contemporary times, and the importance of their presence will become more critical in the future as the number of minority students participating in higher education continues to increase (Cunningham, 1992). According to Phelps, Taber,

and Smith (1997), key college personnel are cognizant of the need for more representation of minority leaders in the academy. They report that:

Presidents of a minority racial, ethnic, or gender group may . . . provide inspiring role models for students, employees, and community residents; add important voices to dialogues concerning personnel issues, including staff development, curriculum changes, teaching excellence, and student success; and promote community relationships and commitments, enriching all associated with the college and its community. (p. 1)

Statement of the Problem

Some African Americans occupying top-level administrative positions in higher education find that being an educational administrative leader is an anomaly and find themselves in a paradoxical situation. For example, researchers note that African American leaders in higher education have been given administrative responsibilities, but no equivalent power to influence policy decisions in their organizations (Cunningham, 1992; Hale, 1975; Smith, 1980; Tucker, 1980). In other words, they do not have the power Bennis and Nanus (1985) indicate that “is the basic energy to initiate and sustain action translating intention into reality, the quality without which leaders cannot lead” (p. 15). The historical disenfranchising of African American higher educational leaders raises questions not only of being able to secure such positions but also the degree and extent to which they exhibit power and influence within those positions.

As previously stated, the power and influence of college presidents have a major impact on the growth and development of their institutions. Minimal information exists

in the literature on how African American community college presidents function at executive levels; likewise, there has been no research describing their use of power and influence within a community college context.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to analyze the perceptions of African American community college presidents regarding their leadership style and their use of power and influence within their organizations. This study will also identify various sources of power and influence utilized by African American community college presidents. Participants for this study will include African American community college presidents from both single and multi-campus community college districts across the United States.

Research Questions

The following research questions will direct this study:

1. What do African American community college presidents perceive about their leadership behavior as reported in the instrument, Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self?
2. What do African American community college presidents perceive about their use of power as reported in the instrument, Power Perception Profile (PPP) Perception of Self?
3. What is the relationship between selected demographic characteristics and the perceptions of African American community college presidents concerning leadership and power?

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined in order to provide a clear understanding of the research data.

African American community college presidents refers to individuals of African American heritage who are presidents of community colleges in the United States and who are “the chief officer of an organization (as a corporation or institution) usually entrusted with the direction and administration of its policies” (*Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary*, 1993, p. 922).

The term *Leadership* as defined by Roueche et al. (1989) will be used in this study. They conceptualize leadership as “the ability to influence, shape, and embed values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors consistent with increased staff and faculty commitment to the unique mission of the community college” (p. 18).

Power refers to the potential one or more individuals have to influence others (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Hersey et al. (1996) concur, stating that “power is influence potential—the resource that enables a leader to gain compliance or commitment from others” (p. 229). The Power Perception Profile will operationally define the term Power into the following seven components:

1. *Coercive Power* is the perceived ability of the leader to provide sanctions, punishment, or consequences for not performing.
2. *Connection Power* is the perceived association of the leader with influential persons or organizations.

3. *Reward Power* is the perceived ability of the leader to provide resources and benefits that people would like to have.
4. *Legitimate Power* is the perception that it is appropriate for the leader to make decisions because of his or her title, role or position in the organization.
5. *Referent Power* is the perceived attractiveness of interacting with the leader.
6. *Information Power* is the leader's perceived access to, or possession of, useful information.
7. *Expert Power* is the perception that the leader has relevant education, experience, and expertise.

Influence is defined as the effect of one individual on another; influence over people involves influence over attitudes, perceptions, and/or behavior or a combination of these outcomes (Yukl, 1994).

Significance of the Study

This study will examine African American community college presidents' perceptions of leadership and use of power and influence at the organizational level. A study of this nature is important because the results will (a) add to the body of knowledge regarding African American leadership in higher education; (b) begin to fill the gap created by the lack of research data in community college literature regarding African American executive leadership; (c) provide a background for further research on other aspects of African American community college leaders (e.g., communication and networking styles); (d) provide information regarding African American community college presidents' use of power and influence to inform the practice of current and future

African American community college leaders; and (e) also to add to the understanding of those working with African American educational executives.

Overview of Research Methodology

The research methodology selected for this study is a non-experimental qualitative approach utilizing a survey research technique. An essential purpose of survey research is to investigate a set of characteristics or a set of attitudes and/or beliefs in relation to a group of individuals (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). The participants for this study will include African American community college presidents, and the major objective of this study is to investigate their perceptions concerning how they understand and characterize themselves regarding issues of leadership and power.

Two instruments will be used in this study to collect data. The first instrument is the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self developed by the Center for Leadership Studies, Inc., Escondido, California. The LEAD questionnaire is designed to gather information concerning the behavior of leaders when they are involved in efforts to influence the behaviors and attitudes of others. The LEAD instrument will determine each participant's primary and secondary leadership style.

The second instrument that will be used in this study is the Power Perception Profile (PPP) Perception of Self by Dr. Paul Hersey and Dr. Walter E. Natemeyer (Hersey et al., 1996) and also developed by the Center for Leadership Studies, Inc. The PPP is designed to provide data concerning how people use different kinds of power as a method of attempting to influence others. Both instruments used for this study are self-

report instruments. The researcher believes that this methodology will appropriately identify certain characteristics regarding issues of leadership and power.

Assumptions

Several assumptions underlie the conceptualization of this study and directed the development of the research questions and design. They are as follows:

1. Power includes the exertion of influence over others (Gardner, 1990), and this study assumes that power is an important factor in administrative leadership.
2. African American community college presidents' use of power has not been examined in a systematic fashion.
3. The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description instrument and the Power Perception Profile instrument are appropriate tools for addressing issues regarding how individuals perceive their leadership abilities and use of power.
4. Subjects will respond honestly to the instrument used in acquiring the data.
5. How African American community college presidents lead and use power in their leadership positions to accomplish their institutions' missions provides paradigms for other African American administrators.
6. Data analysis of subjects' perceptions concerning leadership and power may be similar to the perceptions of others.

Limitations

A major impetus for undertaking this study is the current deficiency of research regarding leadership characteristics and the use of power among African American community college presidents. The database from this study will include information

collected only from African American community college presidents. As a result, generalizability of the findings is limited and should be made with caution. However, limiting the study to one group allows for a more thorough inquiry. Another limitation is related to the relatively small population size. Phelps et al. (1997) indicate that African Americans compose only five percent of the 1,220 presidents of community colleges. This underrepresentation of African Americans community college presidents may or may not represent a normative sample. This study is limited to African Americans who are chief officers of their institutions, and there is no attempt to assess African Americans in other administrative positions. This study will not include comparison data on other groups.

Summary

The intent of this chapter is to provide an overview of a study focusing on how African American community college presidents perceive their leadership styles and their use of power within their organizations. Chapter One is written to supply the reader with introductory information regarding educational leadership, power and influence, and African American administrators in higher education. Also, Chapter One provides a brief discussion concerning the significance and purpose of the study, concepts related to power, and guiding research questions.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Literature

The primary emphasis of this research is to explore the perceptions of African American community college presidents regarding strategies and behaviors that reflect their use of power and influence within their organizations. In addition, attention is focused on discovering the conceptualizations of these presidents concerning how leadership and power converge to assist them in developing policies that respond to the needs of the participants within the organization (Bennis, 1989).

The literature and research included in this chapter provide the theoretical framework for this investigation; the chapter will draw upon available research on leadership theory, power theory, and presidential leadership in higher education.

Section one examines the historical perspectives of leadership and leadership theories. Section two examines the historical perspectives of power, including various definitions of power, sources of power, and types of power. Section three provides an historical overview of community college leadership and examines leadership theory in higher education from a presidential perspective.

Leadership

Historical Perspectives

The word *leader* first appeared in the English language around 1300 AD; however, the word *leadership*—applicable to the political influence and control of the British Parliament—did not appear in written form until the first half of the nineteenth

century, approximately 200 years ago (Bass, 1990). Even so, the writings of the ancient Egyptians, Chinese, Greeks, and other cultures have contained ideas about leaders and leadership that shaped the development of civilized societies. Bass indicates that from the beginning of history all societies have created legends about their great leaders and epics about the exploits of individual heroes.

Bass also refers to sacred Biblical literature, which is replete with stories of noble leaders, such as Abraham, Moses, and David from the Old Testament, and Matthew, John, and Paul from New Testament writings. These individuals were prophets, priests, chiefs, and kings who served as God's representatives and as models for their people. God was their supreme leader who communicated His instructions and directions through the words of His prophets.

Throughout time, leadership has been a subject of speculation and curiosity. Yukl (1994) suggests that many of the events that shaped the course of U. S. history rise from decisions made by military, political, religious, and social leaders. Great leaders throughout history have always been acknowledged; however, effective leadership is important and necessary in modern times as well, especially in countries where citizens experience political, social, and economic conflict. Preparing individuals for leadership in societies that must contend with accelerating technological advances and global markets requires a thorough understanding of leadership theory. The following section will examine various definitions and theoretical approaches to leadership espoused by researchers in the field.

Definitions

The subject of leadership has been examined by many researchers, and disagreement regarding the nature and meaning of leadership has been ubiquitous.

Roueche et al. (1989) summarize this ongoing discussion well:

Empirical investigations of leaders have been conducted by hundreds of researches over the past fifty years, and still we have no clear and unequivocal understanding of what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders, effective leaders from ineffective leaders, effective organizations from ineffective organizations.
(p. 19)

Bolamn & Deal (1991) suggest that rational and objective definitions of leadership within organizations are elusive. Tierney (1989) argues that “theorists have used the perspective that organizations are socially constructed and subjective entities” (p. 153). Due to this highly subjective, interpretive approach to leadership, it would appear that the study of leadership is very difficult but not impossible (Lees, Kimberly, & Stockhouse, 1994). Lees et al. support the notion that the concept of leadership is intangible because there are no clear, common parameters relative to definition, measurement, assessment, or related outcomes. They imply that leadership, like all human behavior, will ultimately remain a complex subject of study as long as human experiences and conditions are subjective and uncertain.

Yukl (1994) suggests that researchers generally define leadership according to their own individual interests and viewpoints. Bass (1990) states that “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to

define the concept” (p. 11). Nevertheless, he argues that there is adequate similarity among definitions to justify grouping the meaning of leadership in the following categories: (a) a focus on group process, (b) personality and its effects, (c) the art of inducing compliance, (d) the exercise of influence, (e) an act or behavior, (f) a form of persuasion, (g) a power relation, (h) an instrument of goal achievement, (i) an emerging effect of interaction, (j) a differentiated role, (k) the initiation of structure, and finally, (l) a combination of elements. Such categorization of definitions relating to the concepts of leadership may appear comprehensive, but it clearly falls short of providing unanimous agreement on meaning and theoretical concepts.

Roe and Baker (1989) suggest that leadership is put to use when persons with specific motives and aims persuade others to accomplish mutually held goals. Wallin and Ryan (1994) see leadership as the ability to think through the organization’s mission and clearly articulate a vision for achieving organizational goals.

Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) state that leadership involves persuading other people to set aside, for a period of time, their individual concerns to pursue a common goal that is important for the welfare of the group. Others (Neumann, 1995; Lord, 1977) contend that researchers place too much emphasis on leadership as an outcome of group interaction and fail to focus on leadership as an ongoing process. Neumann further asserts that researchers give little attention to how leaders come to know the people within their environments in order to exert their influence toward directing and coordinating activities.

Yukl (1994) cites several polemic differences researchers seem to have regarding the definition of leadership. First, there is a major controversy concerning whether leadership is an element within specific individuals or an element of a specific social system. The first view theorizes that the leadership role has unique responsibilities and duties that cannot be shared without threatening group effectiveness. Therefore, the person who has the most influence within a group and who is counted upon to lead becomes designated as leader. Opposing theories state that leadership is a dynamic process that takes place within a social system where any of its members can demonstrate leadership skills. Consequently, there is little differentiation between leaders and followers. According to this view, leadership activities are carried out by different individuals who influence the group behavior.

Yukl cites a second conflict in regard to the meaning of leadership involving the vivacity of commitment demonstrated by followers as a result of the influence exercised by the leader. In other words, is there a clear cause to effect relationship whose strength can be measured? Supporters of this view suggest that leaders are not necessarily *leading* if they must use their authority and control over rewards and punishments to manipulate or compel individuals to follow them. However, according to Yukl, other theorists argue that the definition of leadership must aid in understanding why some leaders are effective or ineffective in various situations. They contend that in spite of the fact that some individuals may be coerced or pressured into carrying out some task, these same individuals may become committed to the task if in the end they believe it is in their best interest to do so.

The third controversy Yukl describes relative to defining leadership “is the issue of which influence attempts are part of leadership” (p. 4). For example, some theorists believe that leadership does not include influence processes detrimental to the group’s tasks or goals, such as a leader attempting to influence his or her followers for personal gain at their expense. Yet, other theorists believe that leadership includes *any* attempts to influence the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of followers, regardless of leader’s motives.

A final problem in defining leadership is the controversy over differences between the influence of a leader and the influence of a manager. “The essence of this argument seems to be that managers are oriented toward stability, and leaders are oriented toward innovation; managers get people to do things more efficiently, whereas leaders get people to agree about how things get done” (Yukl, 1994, p. 4).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) agree with this assessment, stating that “managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing” (p. 21). Bennis and Nanus argue that some leaders within organizations do a good job in handling the daily routines but do not ask for a rationale as to why the tasks are carried out the same way day in and day out. They indicate that many leaders view their roles as attending to the “how to’s” or the “nuts and bolts” and do not relate their jobs to their organizations’ basic purposes and general direction. Bennis and Nanus suggest that there is a difference between management and leadership but contend that both roles are important. In their view, “To manage means to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct and to lead means influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion” (p. 21). They summarize the difference between leadership and

management activities as "effectiveness—vision and judgment versus efficiency—mastering routines" (p. 21). According to Yukl (1994), theorists who oppose this view suggest that leading and managing may be dissimilar processes, but they are not necessarily performed by different types of people; therefore, labeling people as either managers or leaders does not aid in understanding the concepts of leadership.

Hoy & Miskel (1991) summarize Katz and Kahn's (1978) views on the essential qualities of leadership and suggest that leadership has three major conceptual elements. In their view, leadership is (a) a property of an office or position, (b) a characteristic of a person, and (c) a category of actual behavior. Similarly, Hoy and Miskel (1991) assert that regardless of the wide range of conceptual frameworks used to give meaning to the term leadership, research on leadership should provide information relative to a wide scope of definitions so that it will ultimately be possible to compare different conceptualizations and arrive at some general agreement.

For the purposes of this study, this researcher agrees with the definition of leadership suggested by Roueche et al. (1989). Relative to community college settings, they state that "Leadership is the ability to influence, shape, and embed values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors consistent with increased staff and faculty commitment to the unique mission of the community college" (p. 18).

An Overview of Leadership Theory

The Great Man-Trait Approach

Early attempts in developing a theoretical framework for studying leadership originated primarily from ideas regarding great male leaders throughout world history (Bass, 1990; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Roueche et al., 1989). This great man theory assumed that individuals with dynamic personalities, competence skills, and far-reaching vision rose to positions of distinction and affected the course of history (Gray & Starke, 1980). According to Gray and Starke, “proponents of this approach . . . point out that great men and women can be found in certain families with unusual frequency and that there may be a genetic reason for this” (p. 116-117). However, Gray and Starke further suggest that from an organizational viewpoint, the great man approach is problematic. They contend that selecting individuals for organizational leadership positions based on this approach becomes very difficult. Staff, management, and leadership development programs would be of no value to non-leaders or potential leaders since, by definition of the great man theory, leaders are born and not made.

Further development of the great man concept led to the trait theory of leadership. A multitude of studies were conducted throughout the decades of the thirties, forties, and fifties to determine what, if any, particular characteristics distinguished leaders from non-leaders (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Yukl, 1994). According to Yukl (1994), “The trait approach emphasizes the personal attributes of leaders. Underlying this approach was the assumption that some people are natural leaders endowed with certain traits not possessed by other people” (p. 12). It therefore follows, Bass (1990) contends, that if a person has

exceptional innate leadership capabilities that separate him/her from others, those capabilities should be measurable. In his view, two questions must be addressed: First, what traits characterize leaders but not other individuals? Second, what is the magnitude of the variance? Given this approach, Bass indicates that the primary methods used to examine leadership characteristics of individuals include:

- 1) Observation of behavior in-group situations.
- 2) Choice by associates (voting).
- 3) Nomination of rating by qualified observers.
- 4) Selection (and rating or testing) of persons occupying positions of leadership.
- 5) Analysis of biographical and case history data.

Such analysis has been a popular approach for researchers.

Stogdill (1974) reviewed 124 trait studies conducted between 1904 and 1948, and 163 trait studies conducted between 1949 and 1970. Based on these reviews, Yukl (1994) lists several traits and skills commonly associated with effective leaders:

TRAITS AND SKILLS OF SUCCESSFUL LEADERS

TRAITS

Adaptable to situations
Alert to social environment
Ambitious and achievement oriented
Assertive
Cooperative
Decisive
Dependable
Dominant (desire to influence others)
Energetic (high activity level)
Persistent
Self-confident
Tolerant of stress

SKILLS

Clever (intelligent)
Conceptually skilled
Creative
Diplomatic and tactful
Fluent in speaking
Knowledgeable about group tasks
Organized (administrative ability)
Persuasive
Socially skilled

Willing to assume responsibility

Traits are considered to be the different human characteristics that include a person's attitudes, beliefs, values, motives, needs and temperament. Conversely, skills are an individual's ability to effectively accomplish certain mental or behavioral tasks (Yukl,1994).

Critics of the trait theory of leadership argue that this conceptual framework does not take into account the possibility of individuals learning to develop skills and behaviors that aid in successful leadership. This theory also fails to describe a set of traits used to differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Jennings, 1961). Gray and Starke (1980) argue "Leaders who fail as leaders and individuals who never achieve positions of leadership often possess some of the same traits as successful leaders" (p. 118). Finally, some researchers contend that the trait approach does not address situational issues—a leader's success in one situation and failure in another—as a major factor in determining leadership. According to Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996):

Empirical research suggests that leadership is a dynamic process, varying from situation to situation with changes in the leader, the followers, and the situation. Therefore, although certain traits may help or hinder in a given situation, there is no universal set of traits that will insure leadership success. (p. 104)

The Behavioral Approach

During the late 1940s, many researchers became disenchanted with the trait theory of leadership and began instead to examine behaviors that were analogous with leadership. This new development gave rise to the behavioral theory of leadership. Landy and Trumbo (1980) stated, “The essence of this approach is to determine what effective leaders do, rather than concentrating on their personal characteristics or traits” (p. 437). Hollander and Julian (1969) critiqued the shift from the trait approach to the behavior approach and found that the trait theorists fail to distinguish leadership as a process. They contend that functional behavior is an essential element of the leadership processes.

In the early 1950s, researchers began to examine specific behaviors associated with leadership by establishing criterion-related variables. The initial research methods developed to study leader behavior were framed by researchers at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan (Hersey et al., 1996; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Yukl, 1994).

The Ohio State Studies. A team of researchers at Ohio State University studied leadership behavior by examining individuals in leadership roles who were directing the activities of others toward accomplishing specific goals (Hersey et al., 1996). These researchers developed over 1800 examples of leadership behavior compiled from questionnaires given to subordinates who described what their supervisors did in their leadership roles (Yukl, 1994). The 1800 examples were reduced to 150 characteristics and classified into ten broad categories of leadership behavior. Factor analysis on these

ten categories produced two basic classifications of leader behavior, consideration and structure (Bass, 1990).

Consideration includes behavior that reflects the existence of mutual trust, warmth, respect, understanding and two-way communication between supervisor and his/her subordinates. For example, a considerate leader would express concern for the needs of group members and allow subordinates greater participation in the decision-making process (Landy & Trumbo, 1980).

Structure includes leader behavior that clearly defines the relationship between the role of the leader and the subordinate. These relationships include channels of communication, patterns of organization, and expectations for accomplishing work activities (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). Early research suggested that effective leaders exhibited high levels of consideration and initiating structure. However, later research questioned the assumption that leader and subordinate relationships remain constant across various situations. Gray and Starke (1980) explain:

Although it may be possible for some managers to exhibit both behaviors, the general applicability of the proposal is questionable. If consideration and initiating structure were, in fact, distinctly different behaviors . . . then they would require considerable flexibility of behavior by the leader. The fact is, most people are not this flexible and find it difficult to change their style for each situation they encounter. (p. 121-122)

Gray and Starke (1980) seem to imply that an individual's leadership style remains fairly constant across different situations or circumstances.

The University of Michigan Studies. The University of Michigan conducted several research studies on leadership behavior. The goal of this work was to determine patterns of leadership behavior that differentiated effective supervisors from ineffective supervisors relative to effective group performance. Two primary classifications of leader behavior were identified job-centered and employee-centered.

Researchers found that job-centered leaders display a keen interest in work carried out by subordinates; distinctly spell out work procedures; and focus on productivity, performance, and efficient completion of the task. However, employee-centered leaders practice a humanistic approach toward work groups in order to achieve high levels of work productivity and performance (Likert, 1961).

According to Hersey et al. (1996), job-centered leaders accentuate the technical aspects of the job and viewed their employees as tools to achieve organizational initiatives. In contrast, the employee-centered leader “emphasized the relationship aspect of their job. They felt that every employee is important and took interest in everyone, accepting their individuality and personal needs” (p. 107). Hoy and Miskel (1991) refer to Vroom’s (1976) suggestions regarding three possible conclusions from the Michigan studies:

First, more effective leaders tend to have relationships with their subordinates that are supportive and enhance the followers’ sense of self-esteem than do the less effective ones. Second, more effective leaders use more group rather than person-to-person methods of supervision and decision making than do the less

effective ones. Third, more effective leaders tend to set higher performance goals than do the less effective ones. (p. 269)

The Leadership Grid. Developed by Blake and McCauley (1991) (previously identified as the Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton, 1984) the Leadership Grid examines leadership from two perspectives—a concern for people and a concern for production. Both perspectives are placed on a grid consisting of a horizontal and vertical axis on which an array of different types of leadership styles are displayed. Leadership plotted at 9,9 (Team Management) depicts leaders having a high concern for people and production and is considered the most effective leadership style. Leadership plotted at 1,1 (Impoverished Management) indicates a low concern for people and production. The 1,9 (Country Club Management) leadership style demonstrates a high concern for people and low concern for production. Plot 9,1 (Authority-Obedience) illustrates a high concern for production and a low concern for people. Finally, the 5,5 (Organization Man Management) leadership style shows a moderate concern for people and production.

The behavioral approach was notably more productive than the trait approach as a method of theoretical investigation (Landy & Trumbo, 1980). Findings from the literature indicate that theoretical frameworks that focused on behavioral differences of leadership were significant in describing several key elements of leader behaviors. However, according to Yukl (1994), many behavioral studies failed to investigate how leaders use different kinds of behaviors across diverse organizational settings or in dealing with external environments.

Contingency Approach

Contingency theory represents an attempt by researchers to address the issues raised by Yukl (1994) concerning whether leadership is innately developed or is a factor of specific social situations. According to Gray and Starke (1980), a fundamental supposition of contingency theory is that different situations demand different leadership styles. In order to demonstrate effective leadership behavior, environmental variables must be taken into consideration. “Contingency approaches attempt to predict which types of leaders will be effective in different types of situations” (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p. 270). Williams and Huber (1986) explain that contingency theory assumes leaders will lead the same people differently under different circumstances by modifying their behavior to fit the unique demands of the situation.

Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) Theory. Fred E. Fiedler is regarded as the pioneer for developing the contingency model of leadership (Duncan, 1981; Hersey et al., 1996). According to Landy and Trumbo (1980), Fiedler found that, “clinical therapists who were considered to be *good* therapists tended to view their patients as similar to themselves, while therapists considered *bad* saw their patients as quite dissimilar to themselves” (p. 446). In other words, therapists were more productive or successful working with clients that they perceived were similar to themselves. Fiedler extended this concept to other work settings and asked subjects to describe their most preferred and least preferred co-worker instead of asking subjects to describe similarities between themselves and others. He also introduced situational variables into his studies.

Fiedler measured leadership effectiveness by using a set of bipolar adjective scales that yielded a score called the least preferred coworker (LPC) score. In Fiedler's studies, leaders who portrayed the least preferred co-workers favorably were characterized as *relationship oriented*, while leaders whose least preferred co-workers were portrayed unfavorably were characterized as *task oriented* (Duncan, 1981; Williams & Huber, 1986; Yukl (1994). "The relationship between LPC score and effectiveness depends on a complex situation variable called situation favorability (or situational control)" (Yukl 1994, p.305).

Fiedler defines favorability as the amount of control a leader exercises over subordinates in a given situation. Fiedler proposed three major situational factors that could be manipulated to determine how favorable a situation was to a leader:

- (1) *Leader-Member Relations* refers to the leader's personal relations with the members of his or her group, defined as the degree to which group members trust and like the leader and are willing to follow the leader's guidance.
- (2) *Task Structure* refers to the degree to which a task is assigned or spelled out for the group and how the task is performed according to organizational procedures.
- (3) *Position Power* refers to the organizational authority that enables the leader by virtue of his or her position to motivate subordinates to follow organizational directives (Aldag & Brief, 1981; Hersey et al.,1996).

Aldag and Brief (1981) state, “The most favorable situation for the leader, according to Fiedler, is one in which leader-member relations are positive, the task is highly structured, and the leader has substantial position power” (p. 322).

Criticisms of Fiedler’s contingency model include the following: (a) stability of LPC scores may decline over time and therefore may lack validity (Duncan, 1981); (b) it is unclear what the LPC scale measures (Aldag & Brief, 1981); (c) the meaning of some of the variables in the model are unclear (Gray & Starke, 1980); and (d) some research studies do not support the theory (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Landy & Trumbo, 1980).

Researchers observe that LPC theory represents a shift in the study of leadership away from how individuals act on the environment to how environmental situations impact the leadership role of the individual.

Path-Goal Theory. The Path-Goal theory of leadership is a classification of contingency theory that developed out of expectancy theory (Aldag & Brief, 1981; Duncan, 1981; Hersey et al., 1996; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Rouse et al., 1989; Williams & Huber, 1986; Yukl, 1994) and integrates the theories of leader behavior and situation favorableness (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). The expectancy model suggests that employees are content with their work if they think it will lead to rewards (goals) they greatly value, and employees will work hard if they think that their hard work (paths) will lead to things that are valued greatly (House & Mitchell, 1974). The leader influences employee performance by identifying behaviors (paths) that lead to valued rewards (goals). House & Mitchell state,

According to this theory, leaders are effective because of their impact on subordinates' motivation, ability to perform effectively, and satisfactions. The theory is called Path-Goal because its major concern is how the leader influences the subordinates' perceptions of their work goals, personal goals, and paths to goal attainment. The theory suggests that a leader's behavior is motivating or satisfying to the degree that the behavior increases subordinate goal attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals. (p. 81)

House and Mitchel indicate that the Path-Goal theory identifies four types of leader behavior: (a) *directive leadership* involves leader behaviors that give subordinates detailed direction on how to complete tasks, inform subordinates what is expected of them, and ask subordinates to comply with organizational guidelines; (b) *supportive leadership* is leader behaviors that demonstrate friendliness, concern, and understanding for the well-being of subordinates; (c) *participative leadership* includes leader behaviors that consider the ideas and suggestions of subordinates before making decisions; (d) *achievement-oriented leadership* is leader behaviors that encourage subordinates to strive for excellence by setting challenging goals and emphasizing high performance standards.

Critiques of the Path-Goal theory indicate that this theory has serious conceptual problems that limit its usefulness. However, Yukl (1994) contends that "the theory [is] intended . . . to be only a tentative explanation of the motivational effects of leader behavior" (p. 290).

Hersey-Blanchard Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model. The final theory reviewed for this study acknowledges the contribution of Hersey and Blanchard (1969,

1982) to the field of leadership effectiveness. Hoy and Miskel (1991) suggest that this theoretical framework of situational leadership was essentially developed to train managers rather than to be used as a systematic, experimental research tool that tests theory.

In the Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model, the terms *task behavior* and *relationship behavior* are parallel to the Ohio State study's concepts of initiating structure and consideration (Hersey et al., 1996). Task behavior and relationship behavior are defined as follows:

Task behavior is the extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers), explain what activities each is to do, and direct when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. It is characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting tasks accomplished.

Relationship behavior is the extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socioemotional support, active listening, and psychological strokes, as well as, facilitating behaviors. (pp. 134-135)

There are four leader behavior style quadrants that describe the leadership style of an individual. They are as follows:

1. Style #1 characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of task behavior and below-average amounts of relationship behavior.
2. Style #2 characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior.
3. Style #3 characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of relationship behavior and below-average amounts of task behavior.
4. Style #4 characterizes leaders as having below-average amounts of both relationship behavior and task behavior (Hersey et al., 1996).

This model is supplemented by an effectiveness dimension that attempts to integrate the notion of leadership style with the situational demands of a specific environment (Hersey et al., 1996). In Hersey and Blanchard's view, leadership effectiveness or ineffectiveness is directly connected to the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the leader's behavior in a given situation. They explain that, "the difference between the effective and ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of the leader, but the appropriateness of that behavior to the environment in which it is used" (p. 136). They contend that this model is unique because it does not suggest that any single leadership behavioral style is ideal in all situations.

Power

Historical Perspectives

Throughout history human beings have always been fascinated by power. In ancient Chinese writing, concern about power is clearly expressed-the taming power of

the great, the power of light, the power of the dark. Early religious writings also contain numerous references to the person who possesses or acquires power. Historical records show that there have been differences in the extent to which individuals have pursued, feared, enjoyed, and misused power. (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1990, pp. 350-351)

Fairholm (1993) provides a brief historical chronology regarding the conceptual evolution of power. Plato's concept of power was based on knowledge, and individuals who have power are to be respected. Aristotle focused on the use of power as a means to an end. He believed that a good leader should use power to bring about changes to achieve positive ends. The Greeks approached power as a form of ethics that related specifically to the approved ends. The Romans viewed power in terms of position, and not in terms of ethics. They granted power to their leaders based on the leaders' roles in the affairs of their society. Thomas Aquinas regarded power as being centered around the notions that God is the ultimate source of all power and that leaders must acquiesce to theological axioms when dealing with secular issues. Machiavelli viewed power from a political perspective. He believed power should be used to provide security and protection for the citizenry.

Important events in history suggest that the concept of power has been utilized in a variety of ways; however, according to Robbins (1993), researchers in contemporary times have achieved substantial understanding regarding issues relating to the subject of power. Nevertheless, lack of agreement concerning the meaning of power appears to be quite ubiquitous.

Definitions of Power

The word *power* is a derivation from the Roman root *possess* which literally means “I can” and the Latin verb *potere* which means “to be able” (Fairholm, 1993). Bierstadt (1950) suggests that the concept of power is more perplexing than any other sociological concept. He contends that most people think they know what power is until someone asks them. Scott (1994) appears to agree with this notion, and he contends that most sociological ideas regarding power are controversial and widely disputed. Scott argues that the concept of power becomes problematic when researchers attempt to formulate precise definitions. However, he acknowledges that researchers understand that power is an essential component in the life of many individuals and that there is common knowledge concerning its utility.

Although many individuals have attempted to describe and explain the meaning of power, Moorehead and Griffin (1992) indicate that there is not a commonly recognized definition. Cobb (1984) argues that while the concept of power is difficult to understand, it is easier to appreciate its significance in social relations. Kanter (1979) asserts that “power is America’s last dirty word. It is easier to talk about money-and much easier to talk about sex-than it is to talk about power” (p. 65). Nevertheless, Kanter (1979) suggests that the issue of power must enter the arena of scholarly debate because it is a key factor in organizational behavior. Hollander and Offermann (1990) seem to concur. They suggest that power is an integral part of the interplay that transpires in organizational life and must be understood in order to improve the operations of organizations.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) argue that the number of people in organizations who actually exercise power is small; therefore, in times of crisis or complexity organizations experience a powerlessness that undermines their ability to initiate and sustain action. Pfeffer (1992) contends that: “By trying to ignore issues of power and influence in organizations, we lose our chance to understand . . . critical social processes and to train managers to cope with them” (p. 12).

Fairholm (1993) indicates that “while historically much of the view of power is in political terms . . . the modern organization and its ruler, the leader-executive, are a prime focus for the study of power today”(p. 157). He defines power as the interactive, interpersonal process that enables a person to make something happen when interacting with others in a group.

Steers and Black (1994) state that “The concept of power is closely related to the concepts of authority and leadership [and] it is important to understand when one method of influence ceases and another begins” (p. 522). They suggest that power symbolizes the ability of one person or group to secure compliance from another person or group, and that authority symbolizes the right to request compliance by others.

Robbins (1993) argues that leaders use power to achieve group goals and determine how resources will be distributed among group members. According to Robbins, there are several differences between leadership and power. First, power does not require goal compatibility, merely dependence. Leadership requires some congruence between the goals of the leader and follower. Second, leadership focuses primarily on influence directed down toward one’s subordinates rather than considering

the importance of lateral and upward influence patterns, whereas power does not. Third, leadership research emphasizes style, while power research focuses on tactics for gaining compliance by individuals or groups.

Notwithstanding the vicissitude of meanings researchers may settle upon regarding the definition of power, Yukl and Falbe (1991) suggest that power and influence theories significantly contribute to our understanding of organizational behavior and managerial effectiveness. Cavanagh, Moberg, and Velasquez (1981) contend that “power is the cornerstone of both management theory and management practice” (p. 363). They define organizational power as the potential to secure resources, energy, and information in order to support a preferred goal or strategy. Pfeffer (1992) argues that

“unless and until we are willing to come to terms with organizational power and influence, and admit that the skills of getting things done are as important as the skills of figuring out what to do, our organizations will fall further and further behind.” (p. 12)

Bensimon (1994) suggests that definitions of power tend to accentuate the give-and-take relationship between leader and subordinate, or the authority the leader possesses to initiate control over subordinates. Pfeffer’s (1992) definition of power involves its use as a potential force within the context of organizational politics. In his view, power is a consequential social process that is essential to get things done in organizational systems. “Power is simply the ability to get things done the way one wants them to be done” (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977, p. 4).

Closely related to the concept of power is the concept of authority. Steers and Black (1994) contend that definitions of power often focus on the ability of individuals or groups to attain compliance from other individuals or groups. However, they argue that little attention is given to whether or not these individuals or groups have the right to obtain compliance. In their view, “authority represents the right to seek compliance by others [and] the exercise of authority is backed by legitimacy” (p. 523). Steers and Black suggest that authority is established by the group acceptance of someone’s right to exercise legitimate control. Hoyle (1988) attempts to clarify this concept by suggesting that “authority is the legally supported form of power which involves the right to make decisions and is supported by a set of sanctions which is ultimately coercive” (p. 259).

Kreitner and Kinicki (1992) also support the importance of understanding the difference between power and authority. They indicate that definitions of power tend to accentuate the concept of ability, that is, the demonstrated ability to achieve compliance from another person or group. In contrast, authority is the obligation to obtain compliance. Kreitner and Kinicki give three examples of how power and authority interact:

1. Authority but no power--the position officers were in when US combat troops refused to follow their commanders into battle toward the end of the Vietnam War.
2. Power but no authority--an executive secretary refuses to let a stock analyst in to see his or her boss.

3. Authority and power--a manufacturing manager asks eight supervisors to work overtime, and they comply.

Sources of Power

According to Pfeffer (1997), social control usually manifests itself through a hierarchical process. In hierarchies, some central authority is responsible for selecting leaders, for creating rewards, and for instituting the organizational culture.

Correspondingly, individuals who are not in key organizational positions attempt to develop strategies that will get them what they want and need in order to accomplish various tasks and to move to other levels within the organization. Pfeffer notes that recent changes in organizational practices place less emphasis on hierarchical influence and authority. He contends that “the increasing emphasis on high commitment or high involvement work practices and the concomitant emphasis on self-managing teams means that the exercise of formal, hierarchical control is less consistent with organizational values and ways of organizing” (p. 6). He reports that there is increasing research interest in methods that focus on power and influence, participation in social networks, and ongoing coalitions among organizational participants.

Position Power. Robbins (1993) suggests that people in organizations exercise power most frequently by virtue of their organizational position. Moorehead and Griffin (1992) indicate that when positions are created within an organization, the organization establishes a sphere of power for the person filling that position.

Bass (1990) states that “The status associated with one’s position gives one power to influence those who are lower in status” (p. 228). In his view, the person occupying a position in an organization gains power because the position gives the individual a certain amount of control over organizational resources and information. Bass argues that power is amassed within positions that control the technology of the organization and important contingencies in the environments.

Hersey et al. (1996) present a different viewpoint. They argue that positional power does not necessarily come from having an office within the organization. They contend that “managers occupying positions in an organization may have more or less position power than their predecessor or someone else in a similar position in the same organization” (p. 231). They suggest that position power is the extent to which a manager’s supervisor is willing to delegate authority and responsibility down to the manager.

Personal Power. Robbins (1993) indicates that an individual’s personal characteristics can also be a source of power if they enable one to motivate others to do what one wants them to do. Moorehead and Griffin (1992) define personal power as the “power that resides in the person regardless of his or her position in the organization” (p. 291). They suggest that leaders with personal power have a greater capacity to elicit loyalty and dedication from followers than those leaders who have only position power. Yukl (1994) asserts that “personal power includes potential influence derived from task expertise, friendship and loyalty, and a leader’s persuasive and charismatic qualities” (p. 204).

According to Bass (1990), the personal power of a highly respected expert is more important to prospective followers than the power to reward and punish that is associated with an appointed leadership position. Bass suggests that personal power is visible in the emotional connection between leader and followers and, as a result, “those with personal power can grant affection, consideration, sympathy, recognition, and secure relationships, and attachments to others” (p. 228). In his view, the type of leader who best exemplifies the use of personal power is the charismatic leader. However, Hersey et al. (1996) caution against assuming that charismatic leaders are absolute in having personal power. They argue that personal power is not innate within the leader. They suggest that personal power in an organizational setting is a day-to-day occurrence and to a certain extent flows upward from people who are willing to follow a leader.

Types of Power

French and Raven (1959) define power in terms of influence and psychological change. Change includes all contingencies of a person’s mental domain that would produce changes in behaviors, opinions, attitudes, goals, needs, and values. French and Raven suggest that the phenomena of power and influence involve a relationship between two individuals. Key elements of their theory are “what determines the behavior of the person who exerts power and what determines the reactions of the recipient of this behavior” (p. 150). French and Raven identify five fundamental types of power that are applied in social situations:

1. *Reward power* is the ability a person has to arbitrate rewards.

2. *Coercive power* is the ability of a person to punish others who fail to conform or comply.
3. *Legitimate power* is based on the notion that a person has the right to power-the right to prescribe behavior-because of their authority.
4. *Referent power* is the degree to which people identify with or are attracted to a power figure. The stronger the attraction, the stronger the identification to the power figure.
5. *Expert power* is based on the perception that a person has some unique knowledge, in a given field, that surpasses the knowledge of others.

French and Raven's (1959) five categories of power led them to develop a series of hypotheses about power relationships. First, the stronger the basis of power, the greater the power. Second, the magnitude of power may change greatly; however, referent power has the broadest magnitude. Third, any attempt to apply power outside its magnitude will tend to reduce that power. Fourth, reward and coercive power situations are dependent on an individual's perception of a power holder's ability to grant rewards and punishments. Fifth, coercive power results in diminished attraction and increased resistance, and reward power results in increased attraction and diminished resistance; and finally, the extent to which coercive power becomes more legitimate, resistance will decline and attraction will increase.

According to Hersey et al. (1996), two additional types of power bases have been developed: *information power*, defined as "perceived access to, or possession of, useful information" (p. 238) and *connection power*, defined as "the perceived association of the

leader with influential persons or organizations” (p. 236). Hersey et al. (1996) argue that perception is an important concept regarding the issue of power. They contend that “all behavior is based on people’s perception and interpretation of truth and reality [and] it is the perception others hold about power that gives people the ability to influence” (pp. 234-235).

Historical Perspectives of Community College Leadership

Beehler (1993) gives a historical account of how the leadership styles of community college presidents across the nation changed during an era of expansion. In the early 1960s to the early 1970s, significant growth occurred in community college facilities, enrollment, staff, and budget. Due to abundant resources, presidents spent most of their time and energy building colleges. Community college leaders focused on accommodating growth, not on determining the value of constituent groups or allocating scarce economic resources. "Community college presidents led that growth and evangelized the populace on their colleges' merits" (Beehler, p. 18). Beehler continues his discussion by suggesting that “the generation of college presidents who founded or assumed presidencies of community colleges in the 1960s had less complex environments to deal with than later generations" (p. 19).

Beehler further notes that during the 1970s, community college presidents began to deal with a variety of other issues and describes the time as a decade of increased concern on the part of community college presidents regarding state control, collective bargaining, changing demographic patterns, and the need for diversity in the marketing

and fund raising efforts on behalf of the college. Presidents were called upon to broaden their scope of expertise and knowledge in these more demanding roles. This was a time for managing colleges as well as leading them. “The role of the community college presidents continued to include internal and external aspects, making presidents responsible for their colleges as no other individuals could be” (Beehler, 1993, p. 20). In his view, the decades of the 1970s and 1980s had more dynamic role expectations and diverse role requirements for community college presidents.

During the late seventies, several researchers described different elements of presidential leadership styles. Greenfield (1978) suggested that presidential leadership requires assertiveness to deal with the difficulty of balancing factions and their needs in order to achieve the goals of the community college. McClenney (1978) acknowledged the need for the president to prepare for the future by developing a system that can respond to environmental changes. Sims (1978) believed that sufficient funds to operate community colleges would decrease, and, as a result, presidents would need to become more knowledgeable in finance. They would need to preserve the "core values" of the community college while balancing budgets and sustaining the quality necessary to serve the diverse needs of the community. Bickford (1978) asserted that the president needed to market the college to the diverse interest groups within the community. Vaughan (1978) stated,

perhaps a key to setting the tone and pace for the campus community lies in maintaining the delicate balance between student needs and

faculty/administrator needs and, at the same time, assuring that the college serves the needs of society in general. (p.10)

Vaughan viewed the president as a mentor for staff and faculty and that the mentoring process needed to include all who came into contact with the president. Wygal (1978) suggested that a president's behavior is sometimes manipulative and manipulation is the authority used by the president to accomplish the goals of the college. The manipulative president works collaboratively and ethically with others in all aspects of the college to achieve the desired ends. According to Wygal, this style included sharing leadership, giving recognition, using volunteers, and interpreting the community to the college.

Beehler's (1993) historical analysis of the 1980s, focuses on the links between the community college and the larger community and its concerns. As a result, community college presidents needed to become more strategic in their thinking. Beehler cites Myran's (1983) comments:

Leaders have caused the colleges to place more emphases on integrating the community responsive thrust and initiatives of the various college divisions and programs into a cohesive institutional mosaic. They have begun to devote more time and energy to strategy formulation and implementation; that is to charting out definite courses of action that will shape the fundamental character and direction for the college. (p. 3)

Beehler (1993) summarizes the decades of the 1970s and 1980s by suggesting that what community college presidents faced in the 1980s appeared to be an extension of the trends from the 1970s. He emphasizes that changes in this period included increased

inspection from state-level boards, demand for more accountability, and the development of programs designed to meet the needs of nontraditional students. These forces required presidents to blend consideration for both internal and external alliances into their decision-making process. Presidents also had to address faculty involvement in governance and trustee tendencies toward more direct interaction with the college. They also had to deal with social and educational trends that involved the task of leading and managing an institution was comprised of individuals who had specific aspirations and expectations for that institution. "The evolution of the community college president's role has been interwoven with the evolution of the community college's missions and goals. As these goals have evolved, so has the president's role" (Beehler, 1993, p. 22).

Myran (1983) suggested that the basic nature of community college leadership in the 1980s had completely changed from that of the early 1960s. The demands placed upon community colleges had caused crucial changes in the roles of their presidents. Community college presidents of that time had to have a long-term view and combine new technologies and current human resources to produce a new vision of education for their communities.

The role of community colleges in the decade of the 1990s is one of increased community concern and awareness. According to Mawby (1992), "there will be boundless opportunities for community colleges to have tremendous impact on the local communities they serve by developing leadership initiatives of societal concern" (p. 21).

Mawby predicted that in the 1990s, leaders of community colleges would become more efficient and effective in using limited resources. They would be key catalysts in

addressing societal needs, and would develop programs and services that are comprehensive, collaborative, and continuous. Mawby characterizes the responsibility of community college leaders for this decade as working to maintain institutional flexibility in a changing community. He asks community college leaders to remain true to their vision and mission and to become more proactive in developing collaborative efforts with community partners (both locally and regionally) than they have been in the past.

Finally, community colleges have developed into large complicated educational organizations with enormous fiscal budgets, massive physical facilities, and vast numbers of employees (Murry and Hammons, 1995). Murry and Hammons contend that "it has become essential that colleges, like private sector business organizations, have administrators with strong leadership and management skills" (p. 208). In their view, many educational leaders do not have the fundamental business management skills needed to successfully serve their community college, and therefore many community colleges are poorly led.

It seems vital that if community college presidents are going to experience success they must acquire effective management and leadership skills. The following section presents theories that define and explain the meaning of leadership in higher education.

Leadership Theory in Higher Education: A Presidential Perspective

Birnbaum (1989) investigated the implicit leadership theories of college and university presidents to ascertain how they reflect various models of organizational leadership. He discussed five major categories:

1. *Trait theories* identify specific characteristics that help a person assume and successfully function in leadership positions.
2. *Power and influence theories* attempt to describe leadership by the source and amount of power available to leaders and the way they exercise power over followers through either unilateral or reciprocal interactions.
3. *Behavioral theories* examine activity patterns, managerial roles, and behavior categories of leaders.
4. *Contingency theories* emphasize the importance of such situational factors as the kind of task performed by a group or the external environment in understanding effective leadership.
5. *Symbolic theories* see leadership as a social attribution, permitting people to cognitively connect outcomes to courses and thereby make sense of an equivocal, fluid, and complex world.

Data were collected through on-site, semi-structured interviews with the presidents of thirty-two colleges and universities participating in the Institutional Leadership Project; a five-year longitudinal study conducted by the National Center for Post Secondary Governance and Finance. Most of the presidents who participated in this study described leadership from the perspective of power and influence.

Birnbaum (1989) reported that there are two major theoretical orientations to power and influence. In the first orientation (social power), the president uses various sources of social power in a one-way attempt to influence others:

Leaders can influence others through their offices because of the authority provided by our social and legal systems (legitimate power); through their ability to provide rewards (reward power); through threatened punishments (coercive power); through their perceived expertise (expert power); and as others personally identify with and like them (referent power; p. 128).

In the second orientation (social exchange), to power and influence, a leader's interactions with followers result in mutual influence through social exchange (Blau, 1964). While social power theories emphasize one-way influence, social exchange theories emphasize two-way mutual influence and reciprocal relationships between leaders who provide needed services to a group in exchange for the group's approval and compliance with the leader's demands.

The presidents in Birnbaum's study described leadership activity patterns, managerial roles, and behavior. The two most important groupings were expressing goals and motivating to action. The most frequently expressed behaviors of leadership were those referring to institutional goals. The second most frequently expressed leadership behavior was moving people to action in support of the goals.

The presidents in this study overwhelmingly defined leadership by roles and behaviors. Good leadership was identified by what people actually did, with emphasis on clarifying goals and providing support and motivation for people to achieve those goals. The data in this study supported the ideas that presidents live complex lives and that the less restricted their view of leadership, the larger their repertoire of behaviors. Birnbaum concluded that directive leadership, expected and desired in some situations, lead to

conflict and disruption in others. "Complex presidents, with a rich understanding of the many roles they play, may be more likely to tailor their behavior to the requirements of emerging situations and thus their effectiveness" (Birnbaum, 1989, p. 134).

Neumann (1989) conducted a study that examined what the presidents, as strategists, know, believe, and understand about effective presidential behavior in organizations. He focused on strategies (content) that underlie presidential behavior and the complexity of thinking that an individual president might have at his or her disposal (Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, & Rose, 1983). Neumann (1989) used Chaffee's (1985) three models of higher education strategy as a framework for analyzing presidential strategy. These models assist in analyzing what the strategist thinks can be done and with what effects. Chaffee's models are the linear model, the adaptive model, and the interpretive model.

The *linear model* of strategy is rudimentary and mechanistic. According to Chaffee (1985), linear strategists believe that effective action results from rational decision making, gathering and analyzing data, formulating alternative actions, and projecting outcomes. Chaffee suggests that leaders who employ linear strategy are bent on goal accomplishment and usually define productivity as a means to an end. In Neumann's (1989) study, presidents with linear strategy spoke about

1. Getting management structures in place
2. Developing long-range plans
3. Starting planning processes
4. Making activities fit into the college goals

5. Receiving reports that gave them information

In the *adaptive model*, presidents are responsive to the nature and extent of perceived and expected environmental pressures. Adaptive strategists align their organizations with the environment by monitoring the environment for demands, opportunities, and threats, and by changing their organization's programs to move into new environmental niches (Chaffee, 1985; Neumann, 1989). In Neumann's (1989) study, presidents with adaptive strategy emphasized the importance of these elements:

1. Taking very aggressive marketing postures.
2. Repositioning the college.
3. Creating credibility and visibility in political circles.
4. Resolving image problems.
5. Developing aggressive student recruitment programs.
6. Meeting with community leaders to ask them what they think the college should be doing.

The *interpretive model* is the most complex because the "organization's leader shapes the attitudes of participants and potential participants toward the organization and its outputs" (Chaffee, 1985, p. 94). This model proposes that the leader believes that effective action involves shaping the values, symbols, and emotions influencing individual behaviors (Neumann, 1989). Leaders who employ this strategy spend much of their time explaining and clarifying so that organizational personnel carry out their roles in a meaningful way. In Neumann's study, presidents with interpretive strategies accentuated

1. Walking around a lot
2. Being consultative
3. Using praise, recognition and negotiation
4. Using dramatic action to symbolize the new order
5. Delineating the central focus of the organization
6. Flattening the organization
7. Getting to know people internally

Neumann (1989) noted that the three models suggest that presidents with different strategies act in different ways and toward different ends.

Neumann described the strategies that veteran presidents (presidents who have been in office between five and twenty-two years) and novice presidents (presidents that have been in office for one to three years) experienced when they first entered the presidential office. He also compared veteran presidents' initial strategies with their current strategies.

According to Neumann (1989), presidents who are new to the job are more apt to use adaptive and interpretive strategies early in their terms and are likely to have a more complex strategic approach than veteran presidents. The strategies of veteran presidents increased in complexity over their terms of office, especially their interpretive and adaptive content, and presidents changed in distinctive ways depending on whether they began their terms with linear, adaptive, or interpretive strategy.

Neumann concluded:

1. The typical new president had a more complex initial strategy than the typical veteran president.
2. The typical veteran president became more complex, more interpretive, and more adaptive over his or her term of office.
3. Both veteran and new presidents were currently using similar complex strategies.
4. College presidents learned, changed and became more complex over time, enlarging their cognitive and behavioral repertoires and learning to orchestrate their repertoires so that they might be more likely to apply the right strategy at the right time.

As traditional revenue sources for higher education decline, it becomes increasingly important that community college presidents utilize every available avenue to pursue the organization's mission and to fulfill their individual vision for the institution. Whisnant (1990) suggests that a vital part of the president's vision is the *president's image*. He argues that "As chief executive officer, everything the president is and does directly reflects upon the institution" (p. 11). The term "*presidential image*" is similar to an individual's personal image in that "personal image is the conceptualization others have of your values, beliefs, and ideals as they are projected in behavior, dress, mannerisms, and personal style" (p. 11). The concept of presidential image operates in the same fashion except that the values, beliefs and ideals projected to others are identified not only with the individual but also with the institution. Whisnant gives several examples to support his point. He argues that the transference of perceived individual style to the institution can be seen in several U.S. presidential administrations.

With the swing of a golf club, Dwight Eisenhower was viewed as leading a country club administration. Lyndon Johnson was seen as leading a good-old-boy administration by racing his Cadillac across country roads and by showing the world his operation scar. Likewise, the toss of a football enhanced the perception of John Kennedy's collegiate administration. The image of the United States government is altered with the style of each new president. The alteration of image results not only from policy or political changes, but also from the personal style of the leader. (Whisnant, 1990, p. 11)

Whisnant (1990) suggests that it is important to understand how presidential image can enhance the fulfillment of presidential vision. It is the development and communication of vision that ultimately determines the potential of the president and prevents the position from becoming one of mere management. Whisnant defines vision for purposes of his study as the conceptualization held by the president of how resources, personnel, and policy can be combined to achieve advancement of the institution and its education goals. Whisnant argues that the projection of a presidential image that is consistent with the presidential vision provides a day-to-day opportunity for followers to understand and accept the goals toward which they are moving.

However, Vaughan (1986) cautions that "for some presidents, the image of the presidency often fails to reflect the reality of the position" (p. 46). Vaughan suggests that one of the problems is that presidents are viewed as having more power than they actually have, which means that they may be blamed for things that are beyond the control of the president's office. According to Vaughan, fulfilling the external role of the

presidency may also cause some image problems, especially for the new president who wants to be all things to all people.

Finally, Whisnant (1990) suggests that trust, good judgment, and expertise are the keys to the development of a presidential image. "The careful and intentional management of presidential image can enhance presidential effectiveness and serve as a prime catalyst in achieving not only presidential vision, but institutional mission as well" (p.14).

Conclusions

To be effective, community college presidents must understand leadership, particularly as it applies to higher education. They must also understand the evolution of the role of the president over the last 30 years, from "manager" or "builder" in the early years, to the more recent position of "motivator."

In the 1950s and 1960s, community college presidents were seen as "builders," or strong authoritarian figures responsible for planning and developing the colleges. In the 1970s, presidents were forced to deal with financial crises, demands for shared governance, increasingly assertive faculties, and, most controversial of all, collective bargaining. The emphasis during this time was on accountability, cost-effectiveness, and productivity; thus, the role of the community college president often became that of manager. Today, good management is not enough. Effective community college presidents must be creative and charismatic, and must recognize the importance of exerting leadership in several key areas: (a) articulating vision; (b) interpreting and communicating the college mission and goals; (c) creating a climate that encourages

people and groups of people to work together for students; (d) establishing systems of governance that enable people within colleges to operate efficiently and effectively; and (e) providing educational leadership.

There is little agreement in the literature on a simple definition of leadership. Moreover, some researchers suggest that leaders can be more effective if they are able to shift styles according to the situation in which they find themselves. Often referred to as "moderate leadership style," this ability to shift styles is the flexibility community college presidents must have in order to lead diverse institutions and to communicate with broad constituencies.

Chapter Summary

This chapter first presented a brief discussion on the historical perspectives of leadership and also reviewed the literature on predominant leadership theories, inclusive of definitions. Second, this chapter reviewed recent literature on power, inclusive of definitions, sources, and types. Finally, the chapter discussed leadership in the context of community colleges and also reviewed the literature on presidential leadership in higher education. Chapter Three, which follows, provides a description of the study methodology.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology

Chapter One briefly explored the concept of leadership in higher education and presented issues relating to the use of power and influence from the perspective of an institution's top administrator-the president. As stated previously in Chapter One, most top level administrators (presidents) are European American males, and that raises the question: How do top level African American administrators perceive their leadership behavior and the use of power?

Chapter Two reviewed literature germane to (a) historical viewpoints of leadership and power, (b) leadership and power theory, (c) community college leadership, and (d) leadership theory in higher education. The literature on African American leadership in higher education is limited; it is the need to investigate and understand the nature of leadership and power from the perspective of African American community college presidents that provided the impetus and direction for this study.

This chapter presents an overview of the research methodology that will be used to direct this study. The author will (a) present the research design and questions chosen to guide this study, (b) describe the selection of participants in the study, and (c) identify and describe the instruments and procedures to be used for data collection and analysis.

Research Design and Questions

Researchers (Hara, 1995; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Marshall & Rossman, 1989; Patton, 1990; Reswick, 1994) have delineated the comparative value and significant differences concerning both quantitative and qualitative research methods of inquiry.

Reswick (1994) suggests that while quantitative and qualitative research differ in process, tools, and outcomes, neither approach is necessarily exclusive of the other. Reswick agrees that quantitative research is usually connected to such disciplines as the physical and biological sciences and qualitative research is generally associated with the social sciences. However, he contends that a large amount of research in the social sciences is likewise quantitative, and consists of advanced statistical methods.

Solutes (1990) argues that the qualitative research method in education is better able to address certain interpersonal, social and cultural contexts more appropriately than the quantitative approach. Patton (1990) suggests that a researcher's selection of a research method should be determined by the purpose of the study, the investigating questions, and available resources. Similarly, Guba and Lincoln (1988) contend that the choice of research method should fit the assumptions and disposition of the phenomena under examination.

In order to avoid a potentially inappropriate methodological fit when choosing a research approach, Yin (1994) suggests a researcher should consider three factors: (a) the type of research questions asked, (b) the amount of control a researcher has over actual behavioral events, and (c) the proportion of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events. The above guidelines were used to select a qualitative research methodology to investigate the issues involved in this study.

This study is a non-experimental qualitative study designed to provide information about the perceptions of African American community college presidents concerning issues of leadership and power. Thomas (1949) suggests that when

researching people, it is essential to understand just how people characterize the circumstances in which they find themselves. One method of examining how people define situations or perceive issues relating to themselves is to conduct survey research. Marshall and Rossman (1989) indicate that the fundamental objective of survey research is to delineate and elucidate statistically the variability of certain aspects of a population. In their view, survey research is a befitting investigative procedure of investigation for making suppositions concerning a large group of people from data drawn on a relatively small number of individuals from that group. They state:

Researchers administer questionnaires to some sample of a population to learn about the distribution of a set of characteristics or a set of attitudes or beliefs. In deciding to survey the group of people chosen for study, researchers make one critical assumption: that the characteristic or belief can be described or measured accurately through self-report. While this limits the usefulness of questionnaires in delving into tacit beliefs and deeply held values, there are still many occasions when surveying the group under study can be useful. (p. 83)

Consequently, this study seeks to begin filling the gap in the literature regarding the perceptions of African American community college presidents' leadership styles and their use of power. The following research questions will be used to guide the purposes of this study:

1. What do African American community college presidents perceive about their leadership behavior as reported in the instrument, Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD)–Self?
2. What do African American community college presidents perceive about their use of power as reported in the instrument, Power Perception Profile (PPP)- Perception of Self?
3. What is the relationship between selected demographic characteristics and the perceptions of African American community college presidents concerning leadership and power?

Participants

The participant pool in this study will consist of the total population of African American community college presidents employed as such by community colleges within the U. S. For the purpose of this study, the term *president* refers only to chancellors, presidents, and campus presidents. According to Phelps, Taber, and Smith (1997), these are individuals who have chief responsibility in their educational organization for students, budgets, personnel, and curricula. There are approximately 61 African American individuals who are in this category, representing five percent of the total population of community college presidents in the United States (Phelps et al., 1997). Participants will be identified from a current Directory of African American Chief Executive Officers published by the President's Roundtable, an affiliate organization of the National Council on Black American Affairs, a commission of the American Association of Community Colleges. Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. The

size and makeup of the organizations and their student populations, which these presidents lead, will of course vary. All participants will be asked to respond to the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self questionnaire and the Power Perception Profile (PPP)-Perception of Self questionnaire. Each participant will be asked to respond according to his or her own personal perceptions of how he or she leads and uses power.

Instrumentation

The researcher will use two instruments in this investigation: the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self questionnaire and the Power Perception Profile (PPP)-Perception of Self questionnaire. Both instruments used for this study will involve self-reported responses by each participant. As with any survey research, it is assumed that all participants will respond honestly to the instruments they receive, and the data collected accurately reflect the perceptions of each participant regarding his or her leadership style and use of power.

In addition to these two standardized questionnaires, each participant will be asked to complete a demographic data sheet. Each participant will receive a letter describing the purpose of this investigation and the two instruments for completion.

The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self, is designed to gather information concerning the behavior of leaders when they are endeavoring to influence the behaviors and attitudes of others (Hersey et al., 1996). LEAD-Self contains 12 leadership situations in which participants are asked to choose from four available

behavioral options the one they think most closely characterizes their own behavior in that kind of situation. These leadership options include high task–low relationship behavior, high task–high relationship behavior, high relationship–low task behavior, and low relationship–low task behavior.

Task behavior is defined as the extent to which the leader clearly articulates the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. Task or directive behaviors include telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it.

Relationship behavior is defined as the extent to which the leader participates in divergent methods of communication with others. The behaviors include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviors. The following is an example of a situation-action combination in the LEAD-Self instrument (Hersey et al.,1996):

Situation	Alternative Actions
Our followers, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefinition of standards.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Group involvement in redefining standards, but don't push. B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully. C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.

The LEAD-Self instrument attempts to measure individual leaders self-perception of their leadership behavior concerning *style* (their perception of the behavior patterns they use most often when attempting to influence the activities of others), *style range* (their perceptions concerning the degree to which they change their leadership behavior), and *style adaptability* (their perceptions concerning the degree to which they are able to

adapt their leadership behavior to the conditions of a given situation). “Style and style range are determined by four styles scores, and the style adaptability (effectiveness score) is determined by one normative score” (Hersey et al., 1996, p.138).

The Power Perception Profile (PPP)-Perception of Self developed by Hersey and Natemeyer (Hersey et al., 1996) is the second instrument chosen for utilization in this study. This instrument is designed to furnish data regarding how people use different kinds of power as a method of attempting to influence others. Part One of the PPP consists of 21 forced-choice pairs of explanations people use when asked why they carry out decisions or directions from a leader. Each explanation reflects one of the following seven sources of power:

1. *Expert Power*--The perception that the leader has relevant education, experience, and expertise.
2. *Information Power*--The perceived access to, or possession of, useful information.
3. *Referent Power*--The perceived attractiveness of interaction with the leader.
4. *Legitimate Power*--The perception that it is appropriate for the leader to make decisions due to title, role, or position in the organization.
5. *Reward Power*--The perceived ability to provide things that people would like to have.
6. *Connection Power*--The perceived association of the leader with influential persons or organizations.
7. *Coercive Power*--The perceived ability to provide sanctions, punishment or consequences for not performing.

An example of a statement in a forced-choice pair format that is characteristic of expert power is: *“They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment, and experience,”* and a statement that is characteristic of information power, would be: *“I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.”* (Power Perception Profile-Perception of Self)

According to Pascarella and Lunenburg (1988), Hersey and Blanchard’s model of contingency leadership is an effective device for conceptualizing the leadership behavior of administrators. In their opinion, reliability of the LEAD instrument developed by Hersey and Blanchard is moderately strong. They cite Greene’s (1980) reported findings of the responses to the LEAD instrument from 264 managers. Greene indicated that the test-retest reliability coefficient was .75 with the managers.

The 12 item validities for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52, and 10 of the 12 coefficients (83 percent) were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally defined criterion of less than 80 percent with respect to selection frequency (Pascarella & Lunenburg, 1988, p. 34).

Delaney (1980) likewise evaluated the reliability and validity of the Power Perception Profile. He found that the PPP has strong stability from one test administration to another, as well as good validity, as measured by a content validity procedure using 22 experts to match descriptions and definitions contained in the PPP with corresponding categories of power bases.

Collection Data Procedures for this Study

The following procedures will be used to conduct this study. First, upon receiving the appropriate and necessary approvals from university program and college committee members and college officials, a packet of information will be sent to each of the African American community college presidents. This packet of information will include (a) a letter briefly describing the purpose and importance of the study, (b) a statement asking the participant to complete the enclosed instruments, and (c) a demographic data sheet.

Data Analysis Procedures for this Study

Participant scores on the LEAD-Self instrument will be examined to determine each participant's *primary* and *secondary* leadership style. Primary leadership style is defined as the behavior pattern favored most by a leader when he or she is attempting to influence the activities of others (Hersey et al., 1996).

As previously mentioned, the LEAD-Self instrument contains 12 leadership situations in which participants are asked to choose from four behavioral alternative actions the one they think most closely characterizes their own behavior in that kind of situation. Participant responses will be transferred to two matrices and converted into scores. Matrix I represents leadership style range-the degree to which participants perceive themselves flexible enough to change their leadership style. These scores are then transferred to a leadership style profile graph to determine each participant's primary and secondary leadership style.

Scores transferred to the leadership style profile graph will classify participants in one of four leadership styles: Style #1 (S1) characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of task behavior and below-average amounts of relationship behavior; Style #2 (S2) characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior; Style #3 (S3) characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of relationship behavior and below-average amounts of task behavior; Style #4 (S4) characterizes leaders as having below-average amounts of both relationship behavior and task behavior (Hersey et al., 1996).

Matrix II represents style adaptability scores that indicate participant perceptions concerning the degree to which they are able to judiciously change their leadership behavior to the readiness level of a follower in a specific situation. According to the developers of this instrument, points are given for each alternative action chosen in response to the twelve situations provided in the LEAD instrument. The number of points awarded is determined by how well the alternative action selected matches the situation. Therefore, a “3” response indicates the “best fit” and a “zero” response indicates that an alternative action was picked that has a very low likelihood of success. Points are converted to adaptability scores ranging from 0-36.

Scores ranging from 30-36 (high degree of adaptability) indicate that a leader consistently and correctly diagnoses the ability and willingness of the follower for the situation and will adjust his or her leadership style accordingly. Scores ranging from 24-29 (moderate degree of adaptability) indicate a prominent primary leadership style with less versatility to engage secondary styles. Scores ranging from 0-23 (low adaptability)

indicate a need to improve skill development in both the ability to diagnose task readiness and to use appropriate leader behaviors.

The Power Perception Profile-Perception of Self lists 21 pairs of reasons people cite for following the decisions and/or directives of a leader. Participants are asked to allocate three points between each set of two alternative reasons. Next, they are to base their allocations on which alternative reason they perceive is more important concerning why people comply with their wishes.

According to Feld (1987), the choice between the pairs of statements is weighted, and participants are able to weigh the alternatives by choosing one of the following options: 3:0, 2:1, 1:2, 0:3. Upon completing Part One of PPP, participants' scores will be plotted to show the relative strength of each of the seven bases of power they use most consistently (Hersey et al., 1979). Next, participants' power base scores will be compared to their perception of other leader's use of power in similar positions or roles. Participants have five weighted choices (ranging from significantly less than others-to-significantly more than others), measuring 0-18 points on Likert-type horizontal scales that will be plotted on a chart.

Hersey et al., (1996) contend that leadership style and a leader's use of a particular power base is closely interrelated to a leader's success. Accordingly, they suggest that coercive power is related to the leadership style S1. This leadership style is characterized as high on task and low on relationship and involves telling, guiding, directing, and structuring what followers are to do and how they are to get things done. Reward power is related to style S2. This style is characterized as high task and high

relationship; and a leader works toward follower “buy-in” by creating the atmosphere and opportunities for followers to seek explanation and clarification on issues or tasks the leader wants the follower to address.

Referent power is closely associated with leadership style S3. This style is high relationship and low task oriented and centers on positive personal relations between leader and follower. The leader actively participates in encouraging, supporting and empowering followers. Expert power is associated with leadership style S4. This style is low relationship and low task oriented and involves allowing followers to take responsibility for implementing work. Connection, legitimate, and information power are also interrelated with leadership styles S1 and S2, S2 and S3, S3 and S4 respectively. The researcher also proposes to use descriptive statistics in order to evaluate means, standard deviations, and frequencies on all generated data.

Limitations of this Study

The number of participants for this study is relatively small and highly selective; therefore, generalization of the results of this study to other minority or non-minority groups may be limited. Both instruments will be hand scored and repeatedly checked for accuracy due to the possibility of human error. Both instruments are based on ipsative measurement techniques, which refers to measurements based on the strength and weaknesses of an individual (McLean & Chissom, 1986). The results are not compared to other individuals, nor does this study purport to be a normative study.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results of Data Analysis

Emerging issues in a new millennium continue to present significant challenges for presidential leaders in American community colleges. Levin (1998) found that “community college presidents are perceived as having considerable influence on organizational functioning and are viewed as primary agents of organizational change” (p. 406). From Levin’s perspective, inherent in the position of a community college president is the potential to influence organizational behavior and actions. It therefore becomes essential that community college presidents understand the imperatives for leadership in order to respond positively to the changing needs of their internal and external constituents. Against this backdrop, this study focuses on African American community college presidents’ perceptions of leadership and power.

Chapter One endeavored to provide some insights into the need to explore the perceptions of African American administrators in higher education regarding the use of power and influence in leadership roles. Chapter Two briefly discussed some historical perspectives of leadership and provided a review of the literature concerning significant theoretical constructs relating to leadership and power. Also, the role of presidential leadership in higher education was briefly presented. Chapter Three discussed the research methodology, design, and questions used to guide this study. The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)–Self questionnaire and The Power Perception Profile (PPP)–Perception of Self questionnaire were presented as the principal

instruments used to identify the perceptions of African American community college presidents with respect to leadership and power.

In this chapter, the results of the data analysis are presented and examined. Information regarding demographic and biographical background, employment experience, and time utilization characteristics was collected from African American community college presidents employed at two-year colleges within the United States using a participants' data questionnaire. It should be noted that in this study, the term *president* refers to chancellors, college presidents, and campus presidents.

The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)–Self questionnaire was administered to collect information regarding each presidents' "self-perception" of his or her leadership behavior, and the Power Perception Profile (PPP)–Perception of Self questionnaire was used to gather information from each president concerning his/her perception of how power is used to influence others. Data analysis programs accessible in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SSPS) were used to examine all data for this study. Data analysis tools included descriptive statistics, such as sorting and ranking of the statistics; frequency distribution; reliability indices; t-tests; and analyses of variance. The results of this study are reported in four sections. Section One reports the participants' responses to the demographic data questionnaire. In Section Two participants' responses to the LEAD questionnaire regarding their leadership behavior is reported. Section Three contains analysis of data based on participants' responses to the Power Perception Profile and Section Four examines the relationship between selected demographic characteristics, leadership, and power.

Participants' Responses Related to Demographics

A total of 39 participants (60%) responded to the demographic data questionnaire. Of the total 39 participants 26 (67%) were males and 13 (33%) were females. The participants' ages are reported by age categories in Table 4.1. A total of six participants (15.8%) reported that they were in the 40-49 age category. The greatest number of participants, 20 (52.6%) reported that they were in the 50-59 age category. The second highest number of participants, 11 (28.9%), fell within the 60-69 age category. Only one participant reported that he/she was in the 70 or over age category. One participant did not respond to this item.

Table 4.1

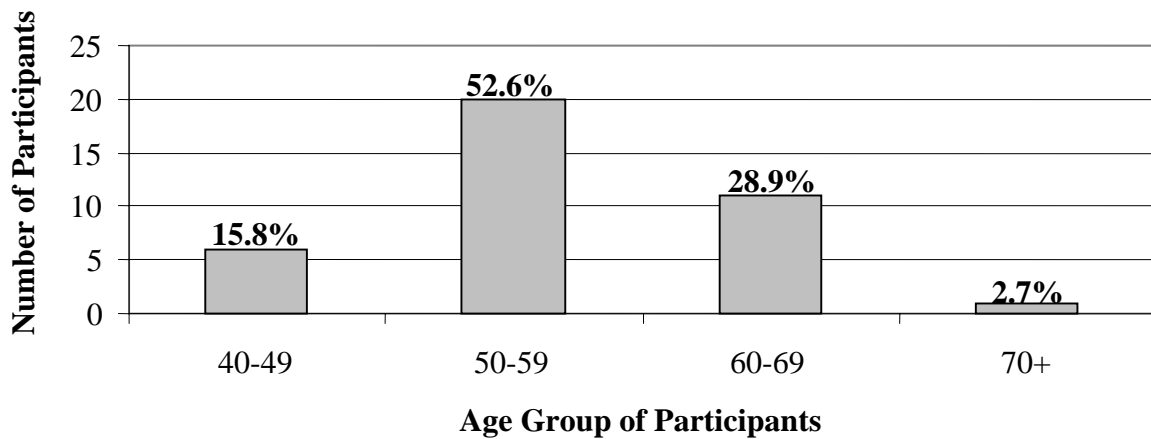
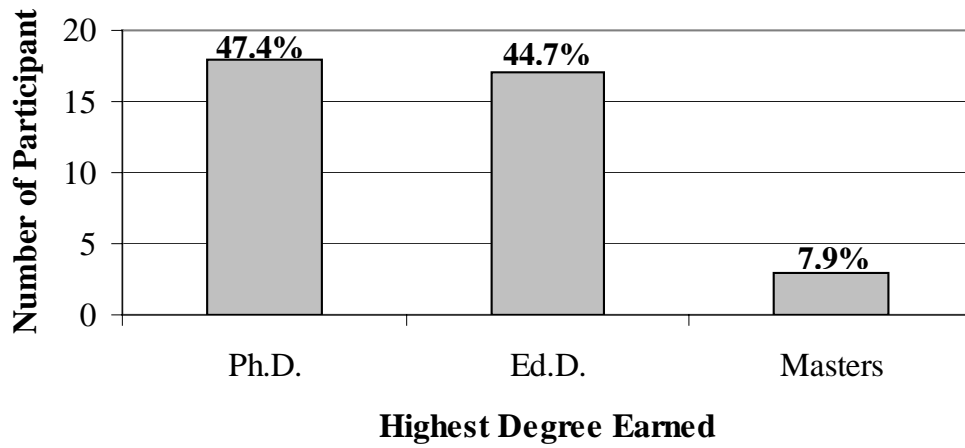


Table 4.2 reports highest level of education by type of degree earned. The largest number of participants 18 (47.4%) reported they held a Doctorate of Education degree, and 17 (44.7%) participants reported they held Doctorate of Philosophy degree. Only 3 (7.9%) participants reported they held a master's degree.

Table 4.2



The length of employment for participants in each of his/her current position is reported Table 4.3. The greatest number of participants, 15 (39.4%), had been in their current positions as presidents 0-4 years. Twelve (31.6%) participants had been in their current positions as presidents 5-9 years. Eight (21.1%) participants had been in their current positions at least 10-14 years. Only one (2.6%) participant in the study had been in his/her current position 15-19 years, and only two (5.3%) participants had been in their current positions 20 or more years.

Table 4.3

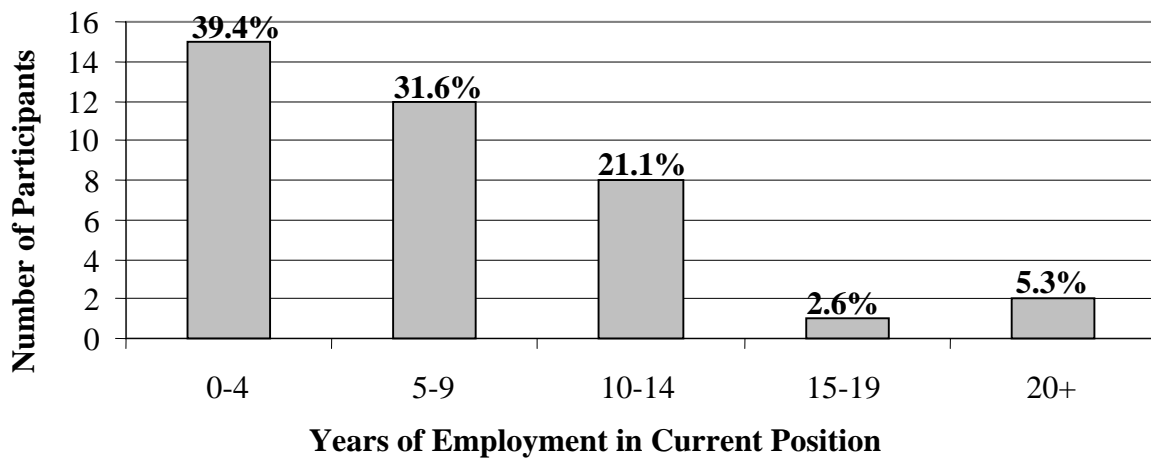
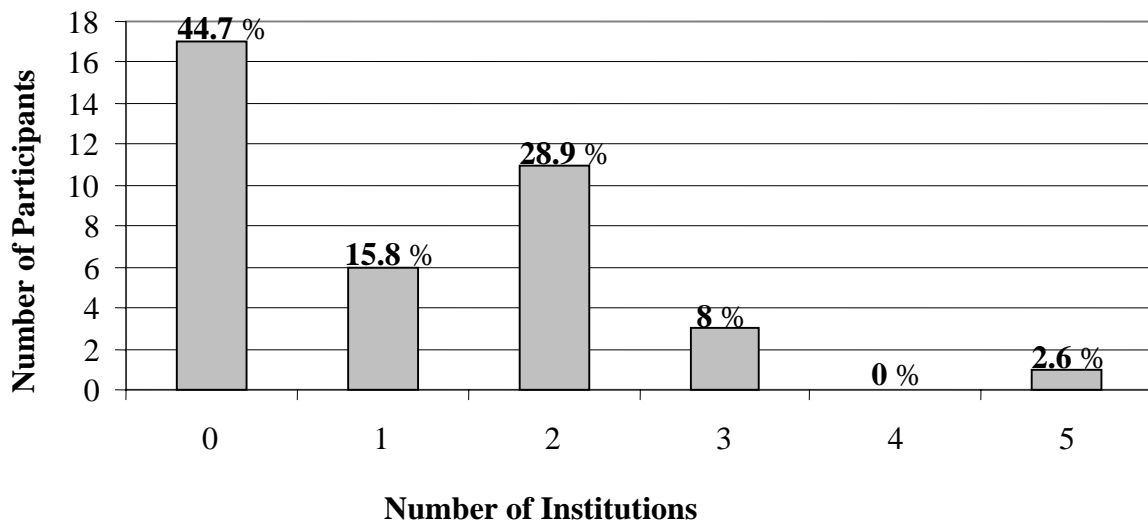


Table 4.4 reports the number of institutions where each participant held previous presidencies prior to becoming employed as a president at their current institution. The greatest number, 17 (44.7%), were employed as presidents for the first time. Six (15.8%) participants held presidencies at one institution prior to their current place of employment. Eleven (28.9%) participants held previous presidencies at two institutions prior to their current job. Three (8%) participants had experience leading three institutions as presidents prior to becoming president at their current institution. Only one (2.6%) participant held a presidential position at five other institutions prior to his/her current position.

Table 4.4



The type of leadership position each participant held prior to becoming a chief administrator is reported in Table 4.5. Most participants, 18 (48.7%), in this study reported they were previously employed in some capacity as a Dean (i.e. Dean of Student Affairs, Academic Affairs, Instruction, Liberal Arts, Natural Sciences, etc.). Ten (27%) participants reported they were previously Vice Presidents. Two (5.4%) participants reported that they were vice chancellors prior to becoming presidents. Also, two (5.4%) participants reported that they had been high school principals prior to becoming presidents. One (2.7%) participant reported holding a prior position as a Chief Academic Officer. Another participant reported holding a prior position as a Presidential Assistant. One participant reported having held a position as an Executive Director, and a single participant reported having held the position Director of Educational Services prior to becoming a president.

Table 4.5

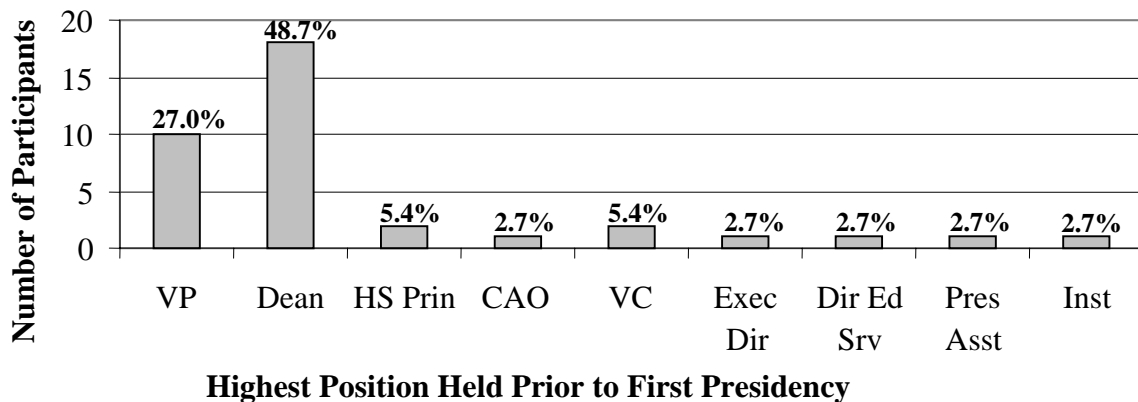


Table 4.6 reports that 27 (71.1%) participants held different positions at other locations before becoming a president while 11 (28.9%) participants held different positions at the same location prior to becoming president.

Table 4.6

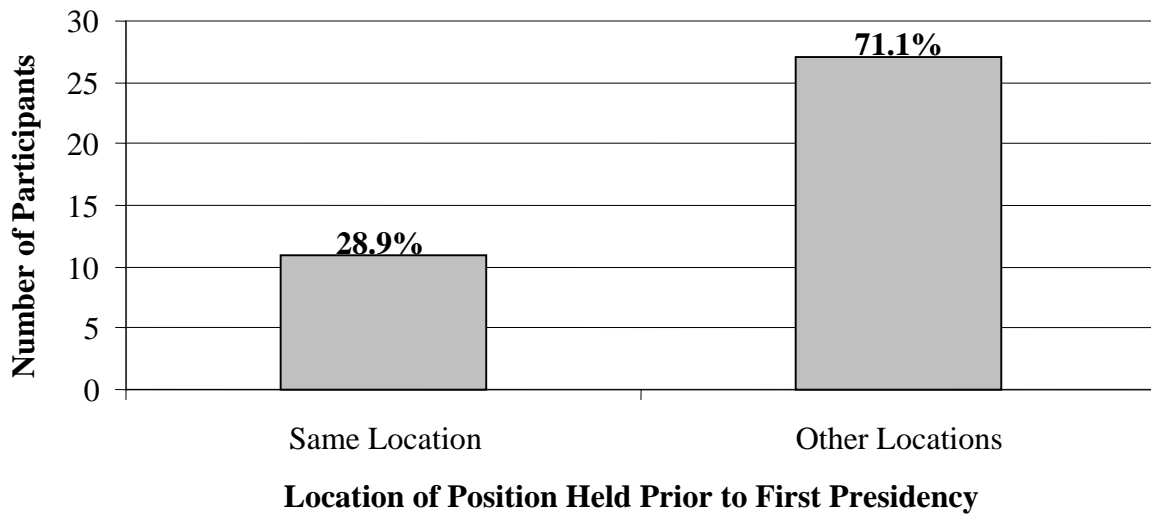
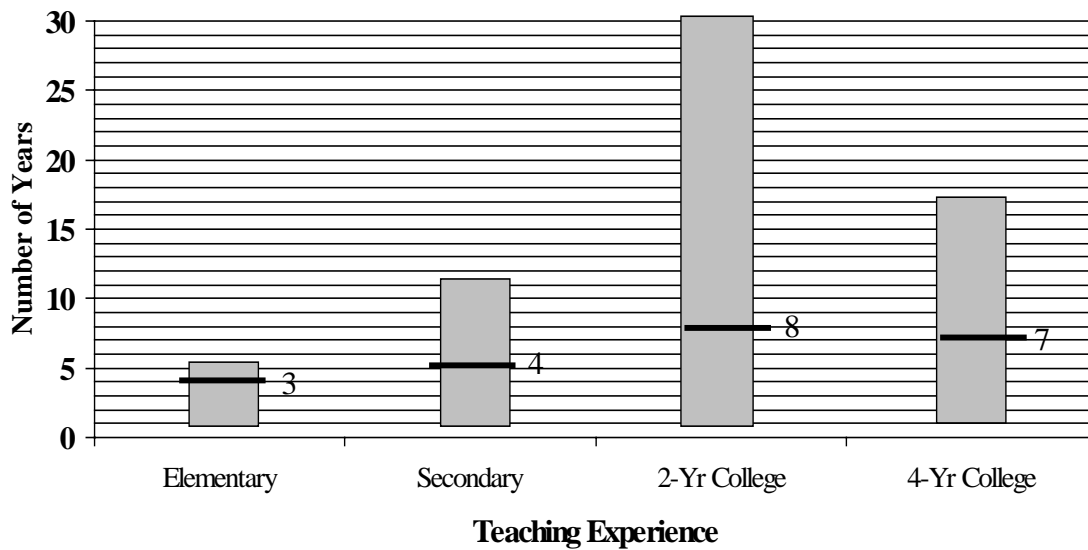


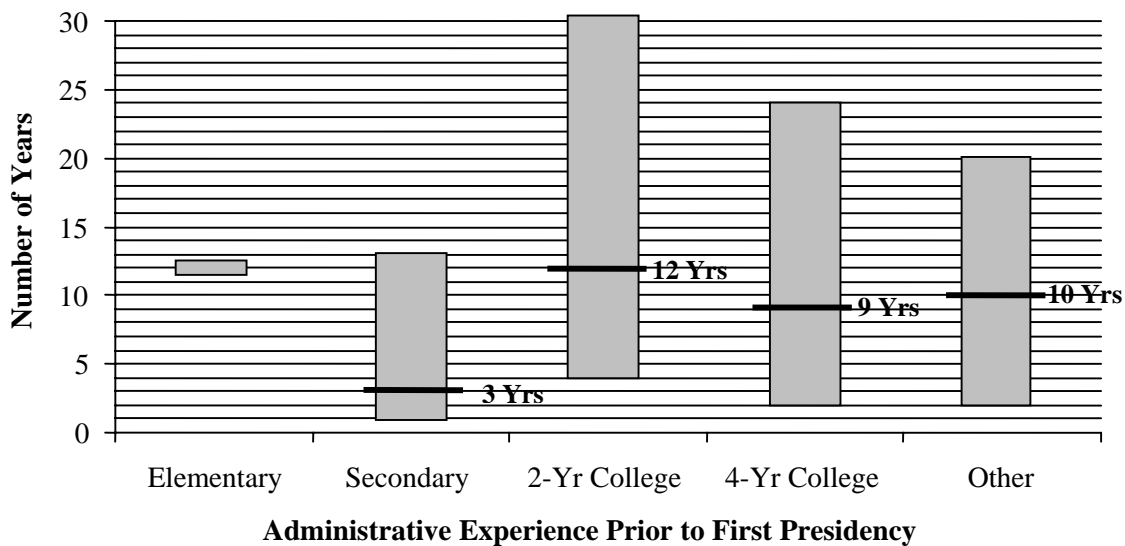
Table 4.7 reports the range of years of teaching experience participants had prior to becoming president or chief administrator of an educational organization. The range of years for participants who reported they had elementary school teaching experience was 1 to 5 years. Experience for those participants with secondary school teaching ranged between 1 and 11 years. Experience for participants having two-year college teaching experience ranged between 1 and 30 years. The range of teaching experience participants reported having in four-year colleges was 1 to 17 years. The average number of years of teaching experience by participants was highest in two colleges (8 years) and lowest (3 years) in elementary school teaching.

Table 4.7



The range of years for participants citing administrative experience prior to becoming a president is reported in Table 4.8. Administrative experience in two-year colleges ranged from a low of 4 years to a high of 30 years, with 12 years of administrative experience being the average. Those participants who reported having administrative experience in four-year colleges range between 2 and 24 years. Participants' administrative experience outside the field of education ranged from 2 to 20 years. The range of years for participants who had secondary school administrative experience ranged between 1 and 13 years. One participant reported having 12 years of elementary school administrative experience. The average number of years for administrative experience among participants ranges from three years in secondary schools to twelve years in two-year colleges.

Table 4.8



The range of estimated work hours per week participants spent at his/her work site (on campus) and away from his/her work site (off campus) is reported in Table 4.9. The range of estimated hours per a week participants spent on campus involved in work related responsibilities was between 20 and 65 hours. The average amount of work hours on campus is 46 hours a week. Participants also reported spending between 5 and 40 hours a week away from campus engaged in official college business. Participants averaged 17 hours a week working on campus.

Table 4.9

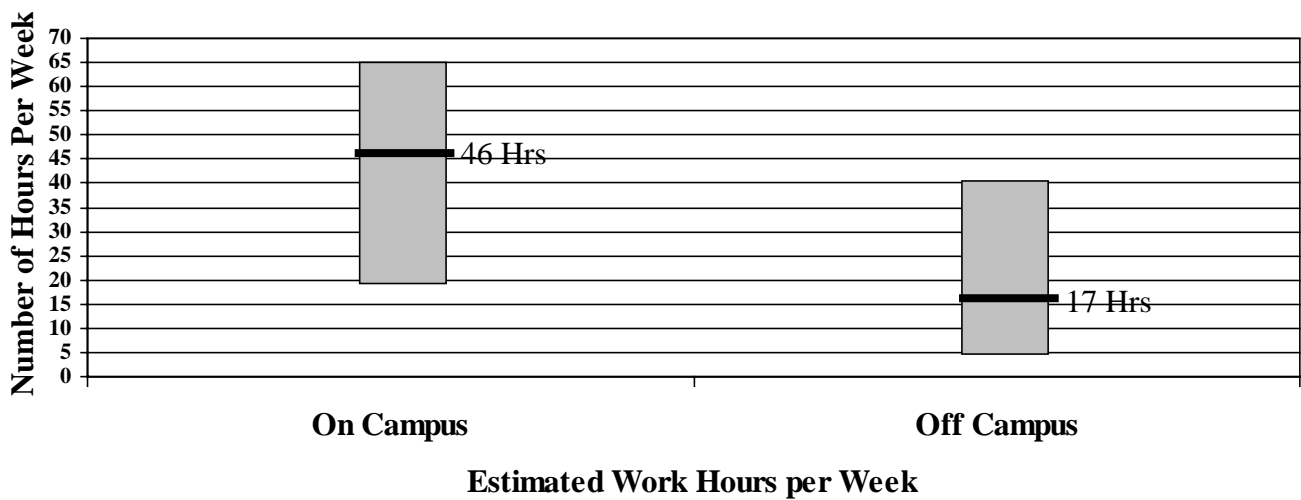
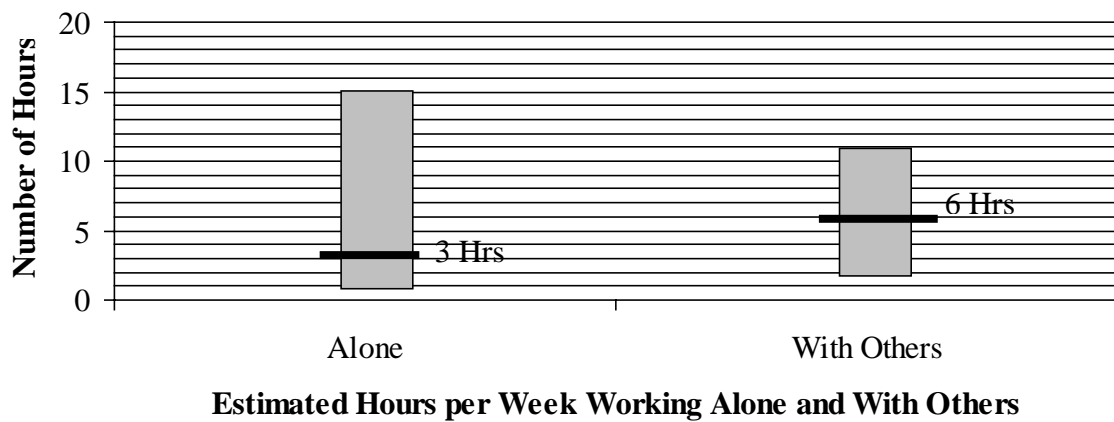


Table 4.10 reports the daily estimated range of work hours participants spent working alone and working with others. Participants reported an estimated range of 1 to 15 daily work hours working alone and an estimated range of 2 to 11 daily work hours working with others.

Table 4.10



Research Question One

Research question number one in this study asked: What do African American community college presidents perceive about their leadership behavior as reported in the instrument, Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)–Self? Hersey et al. (1996), state that their research indicates every leader has a primary leadership style, and the majority of leaders have a secondary, or what they identify as a “back up” leadership style. They define primary leadership style as “the behavior pattern used most often when attempting to influence the activities of others” and secondary leadership styles as “the leadership style that a person tends to use on occasion” (p. 299). Scores derived from The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)–Self instrument classified all participants in this study as having primary leadership styles and classified most participants as having a secondary leadership style.

Table 4.11a reports 35 (90%) participants having one primary leadership style they tend to use often and 4 (10%) participants using two primary leadership styles regularly. Table 4.11b also reports 25 (64%) participants using one secondary leadership style and 13 (33%) participants using two secondary leadership styles. One (3%) participant's scores did not indicate that he/she uses a secondary leadership style.

Table 4.11a

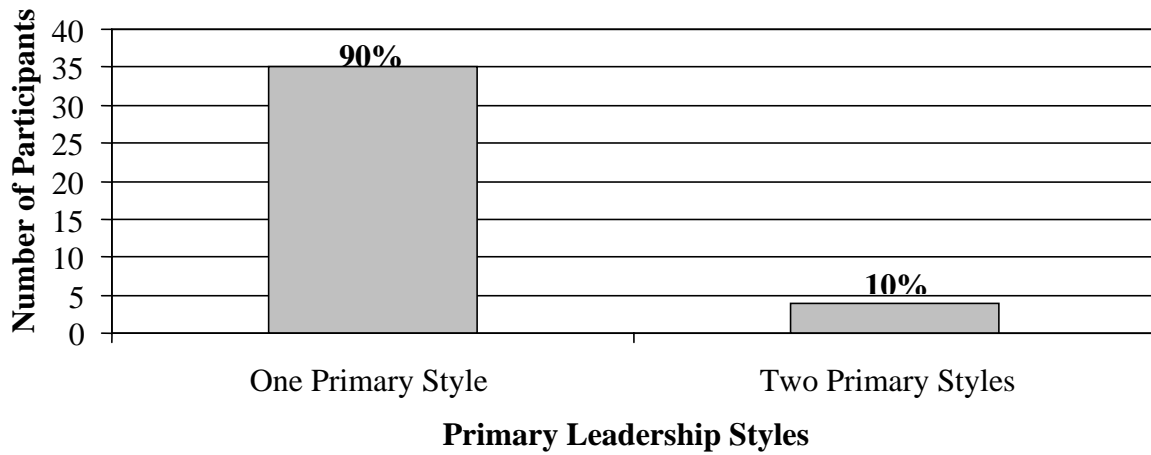
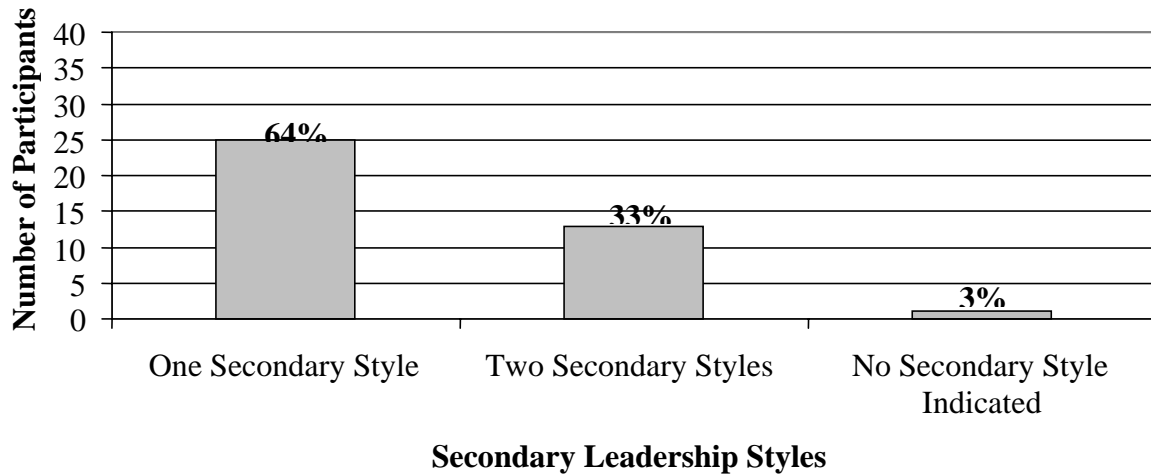


Table 4.11b



As noted in Chapter Three, participants' responses to The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)–Self were classified in one of four leadership styles (Hersey et al., 1996). Leadership style #1 characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of task behavior and below-average amounts of relationship behavior. This leadership style is defined as *telling*. A leader with this style may be more likely to guide, direct, or structure the tasks of others. Style #2 characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior. This leadership style is defined as *selling*. The leader who uses this style not only provides direction but also is more likely to explain, persuade and clarify issues in order to gain a certain amount of acceptance from others. Style #3 distinguishes leaders having above-average amounts of relationship behaviors and below-average amounts of task behavior. This leadership style is defined as *participating*, which describes the leader's behavior: collaborative, facilitative, and supportive. Style #4 represents leaders having average amounts of both relationship behavior and task behavior, and is defined as *delegating*. Leaders using this leadership style are more likely to give followers the authority to execute tasks with minimal supervision. Key words for this leadership style are observing and monitoring.

Table 4.12 reports how the LEAD–Self instrument classified participants in this study according to the leadership style they use most often or their “primary” leadership style. The instrument indicated that 21 (54%) participants used the *selling* leadership style most often. Fourteen individuals in this study (36%) were identified as using a *participating* leadership style as a primary style. Three participants (8%) were classified as using both *participating and selling* as a primary leadership style. One (2%) individual in this study was classified as using *participating and telling* as a primary leadership style. No participant was classified using *delegating* as a primary leadership style.

Table 4.12

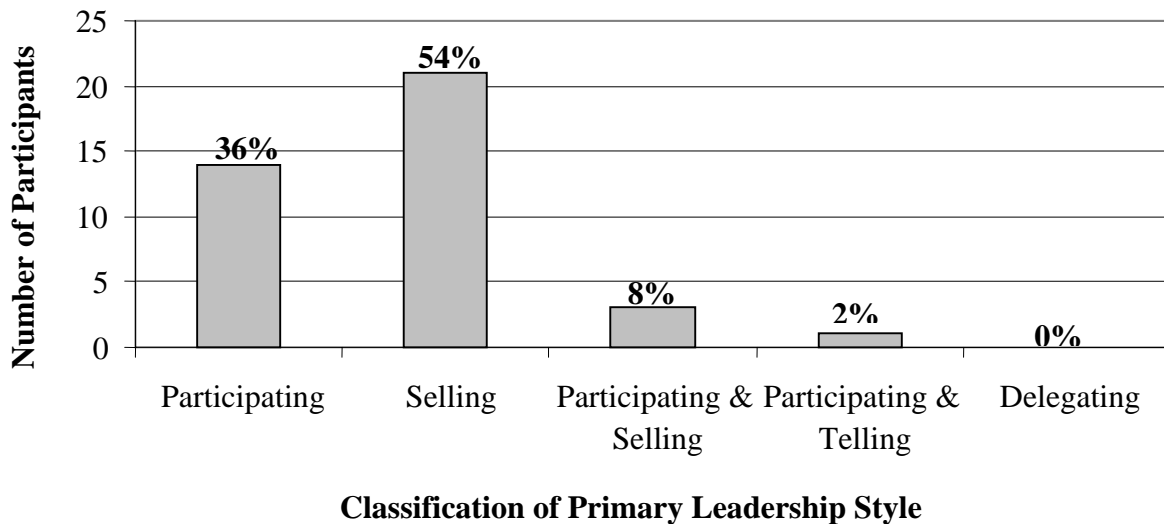
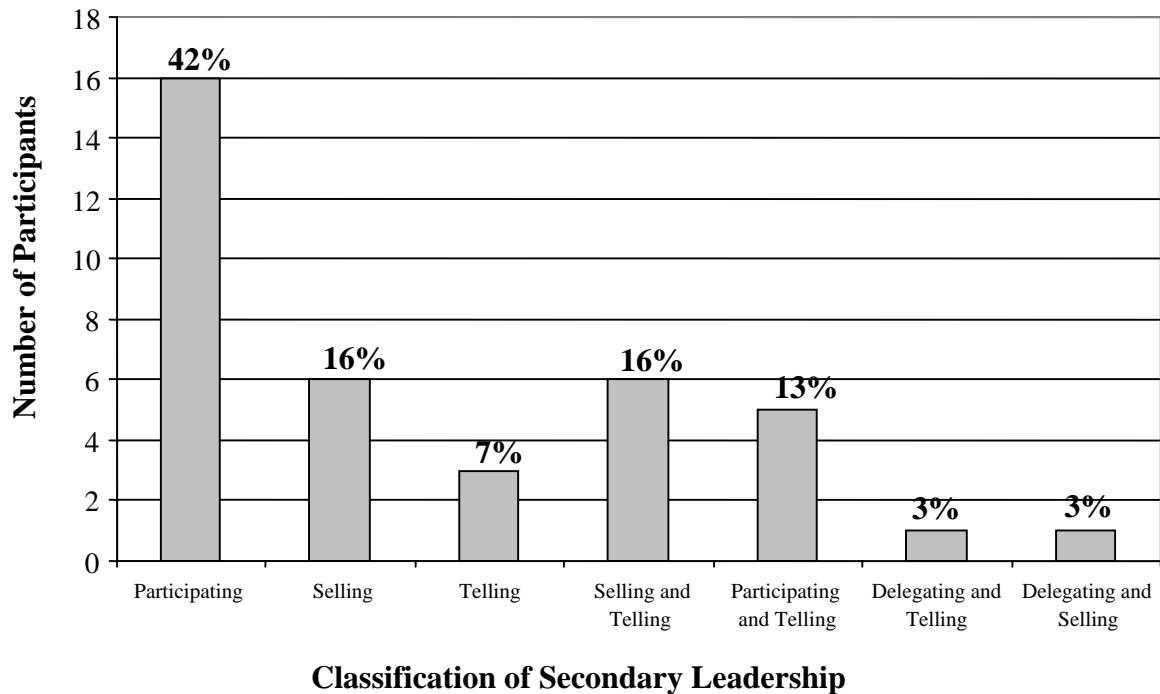


Table 4.13 reports the leadership style participants’ use as a secondary or “back up” style. The LEAD–Self classified 16 (42%) individuals using *participating* as a secondary style. Six (16%) participants used *selling* as a secondary leadership style. Three (7%) participants used *telling* as a secondary style. The LEAD–Self classified six (16%) participants using *selling and telling* as a secondary leadership style. Five (13%) individuals in this study use *participating and telling* as secondary leadership styles. One (3%) participant used *delegating and telling* as secondary leadership style, and one (3%) participant used *delegating and selling* as a secondary leadership style. One participant in this study was not classified as having a secondary leadership style.

In addition to determining leadership style, the LEAD-Self attempts to gauge the degree to which leaders are flexible in using varied or a range of leadership behaviors to

Table 4.13

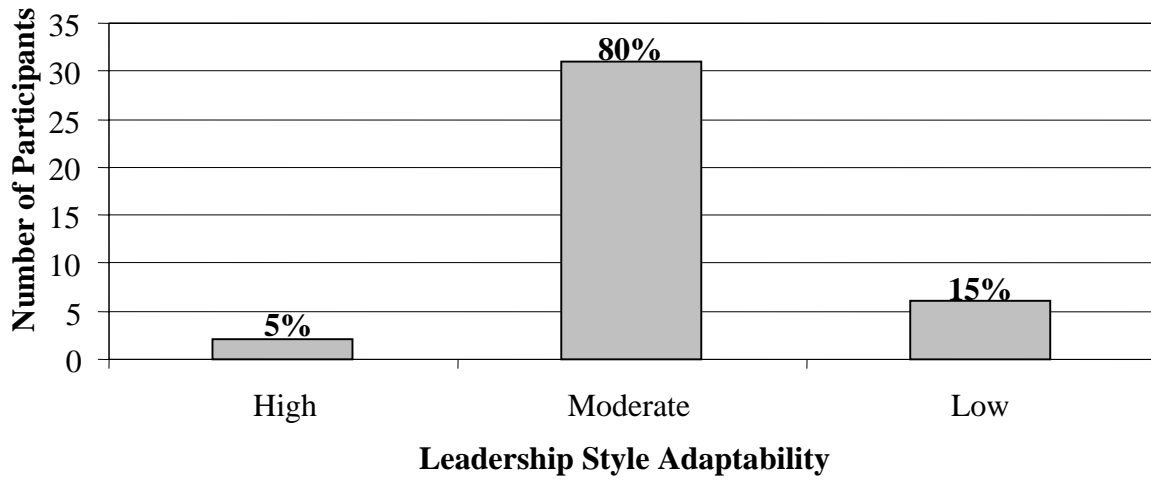


influence others (Hersey et al., 1996). Accordingly, the LEAD-Self categorizes style range on two levels, a high degree of flexibility and/or a moderate degree of flexibility. Each participant's response indicated he/she had a high degree of flexibility in choosing a range of behaviors that would influence others when using a participating or selling leadership style.

The LEAD-Self also measures the extent to which participants are able to change or modify their leadership style to correctly deal with the conditions of a given situation. This instrument uses a point system to determine a participant's possible adaptability score. Scores range from 0 to 36. Scores ranging between 30 and 36 indicate leaders with a high degree of adaptability who are capable of adjusting their leadership style for the situation to meet the needs of followers. Scores on the LEAD-Self instrument ranging between 24 and 29 point to individuals who have a moderate degree of adaptability. As a consequence, these individuals have a distinct primary leadership style and less flexibility in adjusting to various situations. Scores ranging from 0 to 23 identify individuals who may need to improve their ability to use a number of different leadership behaviors to appropriately deal with a given situation.

Table 4.14 reports that the scores of two participants were between 30 and 36, indicating a high degree of adaptability. Thirty-one Participants' scores indicated a moderate degree of adaptability. Six participants' scores indicated they might need to expand their use of appropriate leadership behaviors in order to deal with various situations.

Table 4.14



Research Question Two

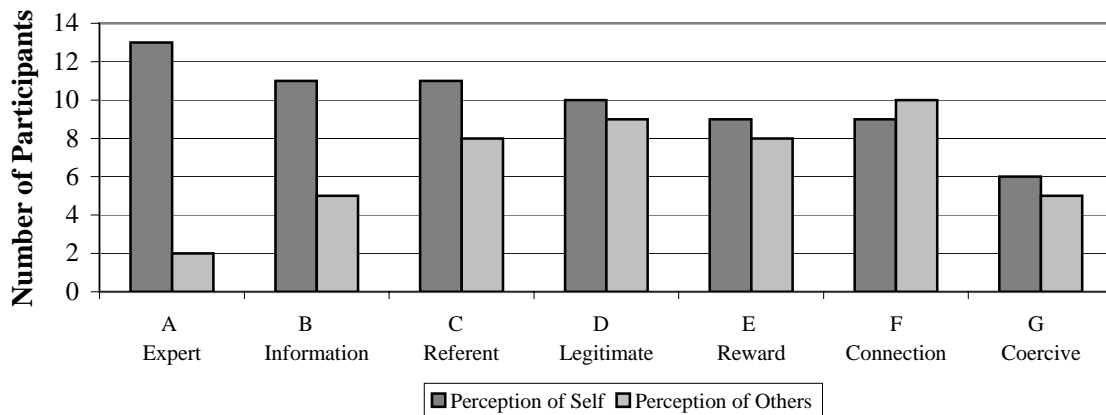
Research question number two in this study asked: What do African American community college presidents perceive about their use of power as reported in the instrument, Power Perception Profile (PPP) Perception of Self?

As mentioned in Chapter Three, the Power Perception Profile-Perception of Self is designed to furnish data regarding how people perceive their influence (Hersey et al., 1996). Participants' scores on the PPP in this study reflect their perceptions of their use of power and point to the relative strength of each of the seven bases of power they use. Participants' scores also represent how participants compare their perceptions of their use of the seven power bases to the way other leaders in similar positions might use the same power bases.

Table 4.15 reports the mean scores of all participants on each of the seven power bases. The mean score (13) on the expert power base is strongest and the mean score (6) on the coercive power base is the lowest. Participants in this study perceive themselves as using expert power (their education, experience, and expertise to influence people most often) and coercive power (the ability to provide sanctions, punishment, or negative consequences for not performing) least often. Participants perceived their use of Information power (the ability to communicate they have access to useful information) and Referent power (the perception that it is important for individuals to interact with leaders) as the next strongest use of their power. Participants' mean score on these two power bases is 11.

The mean score for all participants on the legitimate power base is 10. Legitimate power is perceived as the ability to influence others by virtue of a leader's title, role, or position within an organization. Participant's mean score on the reward power base and the connection power base is 9. Participants perceived themselves using their power to a lesser extent in order to provide rewards for people. Likewise, participants perceived that their use of power to influence others through associations with prominent individuals or organizations was less frequent than the use of expert power.

Table 4.15



Perceptions of the Use of Various Types of Power

Table 4.15 also reports participants' perceptions regarding the degree they think leaders in similar positions would use the seven power bases. The most noticeable variation in how participants perceive the way they use power and the way they perceive others in similar positions use power is with the expert power base. The mean score for participants' perceptions regarding how they perceive their use of expert power is 13;

however, their perceptions of how others in similar positions use expert power is 2. It seems that participants perceive themselves as using their unique knowledge in a given field to influence people more often than other individuals in similar positions. Participants' mean score (9) regarding their perceptions of the use of connection power was only slightly lower than the mean score (10) for their perceptions of others in similar positions use of connection power.

The mean scores from information power indicate another obvious difference between perceptions. Participants' mean scores regarding their perceived access to or possession of useful information is 11. Conversely, their mean score pertaining to the perceptions they have of other leaders in similar positions having access to useful information is 5. The mean scores in each of the following power bases: referent, legitimate, reward, and coercive power, are only slightly different with reference to how participants perceive themselves and how they perceive others in a similar position.

Research Question Three

Research question number three in this study asks: What is the relationship between selected demographic characteristics and the perceptions of African American community college presidents concerning leadership and power?

Participants' responses to demographic questions and to both instruments presented in this study were examined to explore relationships between characteristics using an SPSS program to integrate the data for cross-tabulations. As noted earlier in this chapter, the primary leadership style used by most (54%) participants in this study was selling. Table 4.16 indicates selling as a primary and secondary leadership style and attempts to show significant differences between participant responses in the category of length of employment in their current position and years of teaching experience in two-year colleges.

Table 4.16

Primary	Length of Employment in Current Position (n=38)				Teaching Experience at 2 Year Colleges (n=38)			
	0-4 Yrs	5-9 Yrs	10+ Yrs	p Value Total	0 Yrs	1-5 Yrs	6+ Yrs	p Value
Selling	8	10	4	.067	10	3	9	.007
Other	7	2	7		3	10	3	

Secondary	Length of Employment in Current Position (n=38)				Teaching Experience at 2 Year Colleges (n=38)			
	0-4 Yrs	5-9 Yrs	10+ Yrs	p Value Total	0 Yrs	1-5 Yrs	6+ Yrs	p Value
Selling	6	1	6	.055	2	8	3	.033
Other	9	11	5		11	5	9	

Selling as Primary or Secondary Leadership Style

The data point out that the greatest number of participants (10) with the primary leadership style of selling were employed in their current position 5-9 years. Ten participants indicated they had no teaching experience in two-year colleges, and 9 participants responded they had more than 6 years of teaching experience in two-year colleges. Of those participants who specified selling as a secondary leadership style, 1 indicated he/she had been employed 5-9 years in the current position and 8 participants had 1-5 years of teaching experience.

Table 4.17 presents respondents who were identified as having a primary or secondary participating leadership style. Eight respondents with participating as a primary leadership style had up to 4 years of employment in their current position, and 7 respondents had 10 or more years of employment in their current position.

Table 4.17

Primary	Length of Employment in Current Position (n=38)				Teaching Experience at 2 Year Colleges (n=38)			
	0-4 Yrs	5-9 Yrs	10+ Yrs	p Value Total	0 Yrs	1-5 Yrs	6+ Yrs	p Value
Participating	8	2	7	.053	4	10	3	.015
Other	7	10	4		9	3	9	

Secondary	Teaching Experience at 2 Year Colleges (n=38)			
	0 Yrs	1-5 Yrs	6+ Yrs	p Value
Participating	8	3	9	.025
Other	5	10	3	

Participating as Primary or Secondary Leadership Style

Ten respondents with participating as a primary leadership style had 1-5 years of teaching experience in two-year colleges. Eight of the respondents who were identified as having participated as a secondary leadership style had no teaching experience at two-year colleges. However, 9 respondents had at least 6 or more years of teaching experience at two-year colleges.

Table 4.18 displays respondents whose primary and secondary leadership style was identified as telling. Only 1 respondent between the ages of 40-49 was documented as having telling as a primary leadership style. One respondent with 1-10 years of administrative experience at a four-year college was documented having telling as a primary leadership style.

Table 4.18

Primary	Age (n=38)				Administrative Experience at 4 Year Colleges (n=38)			
	40-49 Years	50-59 Years	60+ Years	p Value	0 Years	1-10 Years	11+ Years	p Value
Telling	1	0	0	0.065	0	1	0	0.065
Other	5	20	12		28	5	4	

Secondary	Length of Employment in Current Position (n=38)			
	0-4 Years	5-9 Years	10+ Years	p Value
Telling	7	2	7	0.067
Other	8	10	4	

Telling as Primary or Secondary Leadership Style

Seven respondents with telling as a secondary leadership style had been employed in their current position up to 4 years, and 7 respondents had been employed in their current positions for 10 years or more.

Table 4.19 presents respondents' responses that have delegating as a secondary leadership style. One respondent was documented as having up to 10 years of administrative experience at a four-year college and 1 respondent had 11 years or more administrative experience at a four-year college.

Table 4.19

Secondary	Administrative Experience at 4 Year Colleges (n=38)			p Value
	0 Years	1-10 Years	11+ Years	
Delegating	0	1	1	.044
Other	28	5	3	

Delegating as Primary or Secondary Leadership Style

Summary

The demographic data of this study yield results expected by this researcher. The demographics of the participants in this study are similar to those described by other researchers. Most (53%) of the African American community college presidents in this study are between 50 and 59 years of age. This age group closely resembles what Vaughan and Weisman (1998) found in their study, in which 58% of all community college presidents reported their ages as between 50 and 59 years of age. Likewise, McFarlin et al. (1999), found the average age of 718 community college presidents to be

54.5 years. This researcher found that African American community college presidents appear to have educational backgrounds similar to those of community college presidents in general. Ninety-one percent of the African American community college presidents in this study report their qualifications to be at the doctoral level: 47% hold an Ed.D. degree and 45% hold the Ph.D. degree. This data closely corresponds to Vaughan and Weisman's (1998) study in which they found that 45% of their participants held an Ed.D. degree, and 44% held a Ph.D. degree.

The data showed that most participants (71%) in this study have been in the present presidential position for at least nine years. Slightly more than half of the participants (55%) in this study had been previously employed as college presidents. Four percent of the participants were presidents for the first time. There are some differences, however, between the participants in this study and community college CEOs in general. The majority of participants stated that they had been deans prior to becoming president, but did not specify if their responsibilities included major instructional/academic jurisdiction. Vaughan and Weisman (1998) found that 54 % of the presidents in their research "were in positions with academic overview before attaining their first presidency" (p. 51). However, only 27 % of the participants in this study held vice presidents positions. Also, the participants (71%) in this study did not ascend to the presidency from within their current location of employment.

Participants' experience in teaching was similar to that of other CEOs: most spent a significant number of years teaching in two-year colleges. "A background in teaching is a common characteristic for community college presidents with the vast majority . . . of

all presidents having experience teaching at a community college” (Vaughan and Weisman 1998, p. 55). As a corollary to this, in the present study, the greatest number of years of administrative experience among participants prior to becoming a president was in two-year colleges, again, similar to community college presidents nationally.

Participants in this study estimated spending an average of 63 hours per week carrying out the responsibilities of a community college president. This average is slightly higher than what Vaughan and Weisman (1998) found among community college presidents in their research. The definitions of responsibilities, however, may be different in the two studies, and therefore these data may not be directly comparable.

A detailed interpretation of the results of data analysis for research questions one through three is presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary and Conclusion

Community college presidents have a significant impact on the success of their institutions. Their success is often associated with their ability to lead and to exert influence effectively. There has been a plethora of divergent views written on the topic of leadership. These viewpoints acknowledge that leadership is a vital element of institutional productivity and stability. Administrators, faculty, and support personnel employed in community colleges across the nation expect that their president will have a positive influence on the ethos of their college (Johnson, 1998). Birnbaum (1992) argues that even if institutional actions or outcomes are not congruent with expectations of college personnel, and reasons for such actions or outcomes are unclear, there will be a tendency for individuals to attribute these factors to the behaviors of their leader. He states that,

This happens because leaders are prominent and visible in many organizational activities and processes, we have a need to relate organizational events to the intended activities of others rather than to chance, and we expect people identified as leaders to be agents of institutional change. (p.7)

Therefore, a leader's perception of self and the perceptions of the leader by others seem to play an important role in leading an organization. Although much has been written regarding leadership and power, research is scarce pertaining to how African American community college presidents exhibit leadership skills at executive levels. Continued

research concerning the use of influence and power is needed to guide newcomers, especially in consideration of the significant numbers of community college presidents who may be leaving their posts in the near future upon reaching retirement.

This researcher conducted an exploratory study to examine the self-perceptions of African American community college presidents on the subject of leadership styles and power. The findings provide a comparison group for current and future leaders to use in describing their self-perceptions and comparing them to those of others. While generalizations of the findings in this study are limited to the participants, this study may be useful to all African American educational leaders. The following three research questions guided this study:

1. What do African American community college presidents perceive about their leadership behavior as reported in the instrument, Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self?
2. What do African American community college presidents perceive about their use of power as reported in the instrument, Power Perception Profile (PPP) Perception of Self?
3. What is the relationship between selected demographic characteristics and the perceptions of African American community college presidents concerning leadership and power?

The purpose of this final chapter is to briefly present conclusions drawn from this study's findings from the surveys, to discuss the demographic data, and to suggest recommendations for future study and practice.

Summary of Findings: Leadership Styles

Research Question One:

What do African American community college presidents perceive about their leadership behavior as reported in the instrument, Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self?

Data collected from the LEAD-Self instrument indicate that “selling” is the dominant leadership style for more than fifty percent of the African American leaders in this study. “Participating” is the secondary or “back-up” leadership style. This data is very similar to a national composite of aggregated data received from the Center for Leadership Studies, Inc. The national composite data show the leadership style “selling” occurring 5 times more often than the other leadership styles among 3883 respondents to the LEAD-Self instrument. “Participating” was the second most occurring leadership style among the same 3883 respondents.

According to Hersey et al. (1996) leaders who exhibit selling as a leadership style tend to “sell” their ideas to followers using behaviors such as explaining, persuading, and clarifying to influence the actions of followers. Leaders with participating as a leadership style tend to use behavioral patterns that promote collaboration, facilitation, and support. They also suggest that leaders using “selling” as a leadership style tend to display leadership behaviors that are high task and high relationship in nature while leaders using “participating” as a leadership style are inclined to display behaviors that are high relationship and low task.

Given that “selling” is the dominant leadership style perceived by the majority of African American leaders in this study, this researcher concludes that African American community college leaders tend to favor behaviors that are primarily guiding, coaching or consulting in nature when influencing others.

In reviewing the various theories of leadership in Chapter Two, the *Hersey-Blanchard Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model* was discussed. Its basic principles are relevant to this discussion; therefore, they are briefly presented again here. In the Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model, the terms *task behavior* and *relationship behavior* are parallel to the Ohio State study’s concepts of initiating structure and consideration (Hersey et al., 1996). They define task behavior and relationship behavior in the following way:

Task behavior is the extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers), explain what activities each is to do, and direct when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. It is characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting tasks accomplished. *Relationship behavior* is the extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, active listening, and psychological strokes, as well as, facilitating behaviors. (pp. 134-135)

In order to apply or clarify the concepts of task and relationship behaviors across organizational settings, Hersey et al. (1996) suggest that the terms *directive* and *supportive* can be used interchangeably with task and relationship, respectively.

The Hersey-Blanchard Model includes four leader behavior style quadrants that describe the leadership style of an individual. Style quadrant 1 (telling-directive/authoritative) characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of task behavior and below-average amounts of relationship behavior. Style quadrant 2 (selling-coaching/consultative) characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior. Style quadrant 3 (participating-supportive/facilitative) characterizes leaders as having above-average amounts of relationship behavior and below-average amounts of task behavior. Style quadrant 4 (delegating-observing/monitoring) characterizes leaders as having below-average amounts of both relationship behavior and task behavior (Hersey et al., 1996).

In this study the self-perceived leadership preferences for selling and participating may exist for at least two reasons. First, 75% of the African American leaders in this study were previously employed in an administrative capacity as a vice president or dean. Administrative work experience in educational institutions lends itself to behaviors that promote directing, guiding, coaching, advising, consulting, and problem solving. Success in administrative positions will make it more likely that these leaders would be successful in obtaining promotions to the chief executive positions. They continue to use these behaviors in their new positions. Secondly, many of the participants in this study had significant teaching experience at various educational levels that may have had an

influence on their selling leadership style. As Baker, Roueche, and Gillett-Karam (1990) assert, effective leadership may result from the extent that teachers guide and direct their students and to the extent teachers connect supportively on a socio-emotional level. Those who are successful in their teaching and administrative roles may therefore have strong relationship skills and may be more likely to obtain CEO positions.

These behaviors appear to be similar to or congruent with Shaw's (1999) list of indispensable skills. He implies that successful individuals acquire skills that aid in promoting collaborative and cooperative educational settings. His list of indispensable skills (pp. 25-27) includes:

1. Ability to deal creatively and effectively with conflict.
2. Ability to deal effectively with groups.
3. Ability to listen.
4. Ability to be assertive with people at all levels.
5. Ability to move others to "yes."
6. Ability to use power effectively.
7. Ability to motivate others.

Tucker (1993) suggests that effective and efficient academic leaders constructively connect on an interpersonal level with faculty, staff, and students and have the ability to deal with and to settle difficult issues in a satisfactory manner. His research appears to support the notion that high relationship skills are needed to successfully lead as a community college president.

Since African American presidents prefer both high relationship and high task leadership behaviors, which are associated with success as leaders, why aren't more African American administrators leading community colleges? Their skills are similar to skills needed to be an effective leader and their skills appear to be no different from individuals from the majority group who are chief administrators. One answer to this question may be that community college boards of trustees still operate from a stereotypical perspective that minorities are not competent to be top administrators. Moses (1993) suggests this is the case. He contends that there are barriers minorities face that tend to hinder their progress toward moving into top administrative positions. One of the barriers he refers to relates to the notion that African Americans are generally considered by white administrators and faculty as lacking in ability when it comes to taking on the responsibility of leading an educational institution. However, quite the opposite appears to be the case when data from this research study are compared to the national composite of aggregated data mentioned earlier in this chapter. Subjects in this study have acquired advanced degrees from similar educational institutions and they have similar teaching and work experiences corresponding to white administrators.

Rolle et al. (2002) suggests that African American administrators in their study placed a high value on academic preparation and becoming academically sound. Their subjects indicated that being a good teacher, mastering verbal and written communication skills, possessing high energy levels, and articulating a vision are necessary to achieve success in administration. Moses (1993) indicates that white administrators and faculty are comfortable in maintaining the status quo because they fear that people ethnically

different from them will change the way they experience and perceive life in the academy. Yet, there is no evidence to support this perception that African American administrators would drastically change the way business is done in the academy.

If boards of trustees or search committees prefer leaders who have shown that they can work successfully with a wide variety of individuals and will be more likely to recommend and to hire CEOs with those skills, then it becomes clear that community college boards of trustees, administrators, and faculty leaders need to reconsider their assumptions concerning diversity as it relates to selecting African Americans for leadership positions. They must move away from stereotypes that are responsible for hindering African Americans from top leadership positions.

Leadership Styles relating to Range (Flexibility) and Adaptability

The Hersey-Blanchard Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model is enhanced by an effectiveness dimension that attempts to integrate the notion of leadership style with the situational demands of a specific environment (Hersey et al., 1996). In Hersey and Blanchard's view, leadership effectiveness or ineffectiveness is directly connected to the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the leader's behavior in a given situation. They explain that "the difference between the effective and ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of the leader, but the appropriateness of that behavior to the environment in which it is used" (p. 136). Hersey and Blanchard contend that this model is unique because it does not suggest that any single behavioral leadership style is ideal in all situations.

Data collected from this study indicate that participants perceive themselves capable of being flexible when leading. When the need arises, they can call upon a range of leadership behaviors to influence others. As indicated by scores on the LEAD-Self instrument, participants perceive they have the ability to adjust, to modify, or to vary their behavior based on the situation. In other words, when the situation dictates, they are able to be effective by using leadership styles other than their primary style.

However, Hersey et al. (1996) argue, that leaders may not be effective even if they can draw upon a wide range of leadership behaviors to relate to a given situation. They indicate that having a wide range of leadership styles alone is not as relevant to effectiveness as the leader's ability to select the style most appropriate for the situation. They contend that a leader's effectiveness is related to style adaptability, which they define as the extent to which leaders can skillfully vary their style appropriately in a given situation. The participants' adaptability scores from the LEAD-Self instrument indicate that most of the participants perceived themselves to be moderately changing their primary leadership style appropriately to meet the conditions of a given situation. Based on data collected from participants' style range and style adaptability scores, this researcher suggests that participants tend to perceive themselves as confident in their ability to lead, using methods that are highly directive and highly supportive in situations where this style has a strong likelihood of succeeding. Nevertheless, they seem to be less flexible (based on the data) in adjusting to various situations that may require a leadership style radically different from their distinct primary leadership style.

Summary of Findings: Power

Research Question Two:

What do African American community college presidents perceive about their use of power as reported in the instrument, Power Perception Profile (PPP) Perception of Self?

How leaders use power is another important contributor to their success as leaders. Data analysis of the Power Perception Profile instrument indicates that African American community college presidents perceive themselves as possessing expert power to influence others. As noted in chapter two, expert power is the perception that an individual has acquired some unique knowledge in a given field that surpasses the knowledge of others (French and Raven, 1959).

Participants' mean scores were higher on the expert power scale than on the other Power Perception Profile scales listed. Their mean scores were also significantly higher than their ratings of how others in the same position used expert power. This difference may indicate that participants in this study are likely to perceive themselves as having to use a higher level of expert power, or to exhibit more self-confidence, than their contemporaries. This finding reinforces Bridges' (1996) recommendation that African Americans who are interested in leadership positions "should recognize the perceived importance of . . . developing and strengthening self-confidence to career achievement" (p. 765).

Rolle et al. (2000) also found that African American leaders employed in predominantly white colleges and universities strongly recommended self-confidence as an important characteristic for African Americans who aspire to obtain top administrative

positions. Participants in their study believe “it is extremely important for people of color to exhibit self-assurance when they enter upper administrative positions” (p. 90). Rolle et al. (2000) defines self-confidence as including behaviors that are bold and assertive and goal-oriented. Finally, the reliance on expert power in this study is supported by Agbor-Baiyee (1998), who argues that power and deference can increase a college president’s feeling of self-importance over time. He states, “Increasing the respect, power and stature of the president for achieving organizational goals can be directly translated into higher personal levels of confidence and control which may be critical to academic leadership” (p. 6).

On the information power scale, participants rated their use of this type of power as notably higher than their ratings of other leaders at the same level of employment. “Information power is perceived access to, or possession of, useful information” (Hersey et al., 1996, p. 238). It is unclear why participants perceive themselves as having greater access to data than other leaders in the similar positions. Perhaps their ability and desire to work with a wide variety of people added to their belief that they have many sources of information. They may perhaps perceive themselves as seeking more information in order to ensure that they are knowledgeable, thereby reinforcing their self-confidence and their use of expert power. In other words, it could be that because of the preference for “directive” leadership behaviors, these participants work hard to gather information so they can be accepted as “experts,” and as experts tend to feel more confident in directing the work of others.

Pollard (1997) indicated that many of the African American administrators in her study pointed to the significance of actively establishing and defining who they are in order to counteract certain stereotypes regarding authority. Her respondents indicated that this was imperative because there were individuals reluctant to accept the authority of an African American administrator because of the administrators' ethnicity.

From this researcher's perspective, the use of expert and information power by African American community college presidents seems to illustrate the need to create a perception of themselves that demonstrates they are confident and competent leaders. Particularly so when it is necessary to counter stereotypical thinking from individuals within organizations who will try to establish barriers that impede the leader's administrative responsibilities.

Summary of Findings: Demographic Characteristics

Research Question Three:

What is the relationship between selected demographic characteristics and the perceptions of African American community college presidents concerning leadership and power?

There were few statistically significant relationships between selected characteristics and the perceptions of African American community college presidents concerning leadership and power. The only notable finding was that participants whose leadership style was predominantly "selling" exhibited this style to a lesser degree during the first four years of employment in their current position. They, however, displayed a

greater degree of the “selling” style with five to nine years of employment in the same position. Those participants whose dominant leadership style is “participating” tended to use their preferred style earlier during the first few years while in their current positions. One explanation for this finding is that during the beginning years of these participants’ administration, they may realize that “selling” may not be an effective leadership method. This style assumes the organization is a political entity; consequently, leadership in such an environment requires allies. It takes time to identify these potential allies and the coalitions to which they belong within the organization. As a result, participants may have believed that it was more effective to take a facilitative/supportive role when beginning a new administration. After learning important information about issues and the needs of faculty, staff, and administrators, these participants may have become more comfortable using the “selling” (consultative/coaching) leadership style to move individuals in a direction that is compatible with their own vision of the institution.

Recommendations for Further Research

As previously stated, much has been written regarding leadership and power, yet so little research was available as to how African American community college presidents exhibit leadership skills at executive levels. Clearly, this was an exploratory investigation, and as such, further research is undoubtedly needed on every aspect of this study. This researcher chose to examine the self-perceptions of African American community college presidents on the subject of leadership styles and power. The study has taken an initial look at how African American presidents perceived their leadership

styles and use of power, and how they perceived others' use of power in similar jobs. Additional research on African American community college presidents is strongly recommended to generate more data to build on this study.

In spite of the fact that this investigation focused solely on African American community college presidents, a study replicating this one should be conducted that would include broader ethnic representation. This investigation, although targeting only African American presidents, should not lose sight of the fact that while there may indeed be ethnic differences with regard to leadership and power, that conclusion cannot be made simply on the basis of these results. Furthermore, while much has been written that focuses on differences, most assuredly there needs to be at least an equal amount of energy and effort devoted to ascertaining whether similarities exist, and if so, to what degree. Are there fewer differences with regard to leadership and power as a function of ethnicity, or tenure in office, or previous administrative experience before becoming a community college president? These and many other questions are pertinent, and in the absence of future, more broadly based investigations, they remain simply that--questions.

This investigator concedes that while generalizations of the findings in this study are limited to the participants, this study may nevertheless be useful to all African American educational leaders. Elaborating on the previous question, research might possibly explore the following directions:

1. Further investigation is a needed to examine how the perceptions of these African Americans presidents regarding their leadership behavior differ from presidents of other community colleges. In other words, do

community college presidents of different ethnicity (as well as gender, age, and experience) rely on the same leadership styles and use of power as those in this study? Based on the findings of this study, there is also a need to determine whether the perceptions of leadership and power expressed by African American community college presidents are characteristic of college presidents in general.

2. This study focused on the individual perceptions of African American community college presidents. There is a need to study whether individuals who work closely with the participants in this study have the same or different perceptions as the participants. This investigator recommends that further research be done to examine how the self-perceptions of the members of this study group concerning their leadership behavior and use of power compare with the perceptions of their followers.
3. The findings of this study indicate that most participants perceived themselves as exhibiting leadership behaviors that lean toward being high-relationship and high-task in character. Further research using qualitative methods would be useful to gain a deeper understanding of why this particular leadership behavior appeared to be more dominant over other leadership behaviors.
4. The current study found that participants perceived themselves as especially flexible when needing to make use of other leadership

behaviors that would be more effective than their preferred style in a specific situation. Further exploration is needed to examine those situations where the use of different leadership behaviors is effective.

5. Further research is needed that attempts to examine why members of this study group perceive themselves as relying on expert and informational power to a much greater extent than other types of power. Further qualitative exploration might produce understanding of whether or not African American community college presidents expect people to follow their leadership simply because they believe it makes sense to do so.
6. Studies similar to the current study should be undertaken with African American presidents employed at four-year colleges and universities, including historically African American institutions of higher education, to determine if similar effects are found with these other populations.
7. As participants in this study appeared more likely to perceive themselves as having to use a higher level of expert power, or to exhibit more self-confidence, than their contemporaries, further research should attempt to ascertain why this self-perception exists. Additionally, some effort should be made to determine whether this situation is in fact a function of ethnicity or perhaps an anomaly that may be more likely rooted in personality theory.
8. Again, based upon data collected for this study, participants seemed sure of their ability to lead using methods that are highly directive and highly

supportive in most situations, and they perceived themselves as having a wide range of styles from which to draw. They seemed to be less certain, however, when adapting their leadership style in situations that may require a different style. Additional investigation should seek understanding as to why this may be the case.

9. Data collected from this study also indicated that African American leaders, to a large extent, perceive themselves as flexible. When the need arises, they call upon a wide range of leadership behaviors to influence others. As indicated by scores on the LEAD-Self instrument, participants believed they have the ability to adjust, to modify, or to vary their behavior in response to environmental or situational demands. In other words, they are able to be effective in a particular situation using leadership styles other than their main style of leadership. This finding on the surface seems somewhat incongruous with that cited in #8 above. Yet, upon closer scrutiny, the key here may lie in the notion of one's confidence level, not with one's ability to adapt. Some additional research might be warranted to clarify this further.
10. Finally, as Hersey et al. (1996) contend that a leader's effectiveness is related to style adaptability, or as they state, the individual's use of a leadership style appropriate for a given situation, it seems clear that more study should follow which focuses on the notion of adaptation. It would seem that one possible direction a future study could take would be to

design a series of stringently controlled simulation exercises whereby participants are placed in situations where adaptability within a situation could be videotaped, the participants could be interviewed, and closer examination be made using a variety of leadership theoretical modalities.

Conclusion

While much has been written about leadership, it remains an elusive quality. Researchers (Darling and Brownlee, 1982) suggest, however, that leadership plays a fundamental role in determining institutional success or failure. The present study has sought to clarify two aspects of leadership, style and use of power, for one group of presidents. The African American presidents in this study have shown a propensity toward leadership styles (selling/participating) that require excellent people skills. They also rely on expert and informational power to a much greater extent than other types of power, which suggests that participants expect people to follow their leadership because it makes sense to do so and not because people are afraid of the consequences of not following.

This study lays a foundation for understanding how this growing and critical group of community college leaders perceives power and influence within their organizations. It is appropriate that more minorities serve in top leadership positions and that they serve successfully, using their leadership skills effectively within those positions. As noted in Chapter One, most top level administrative positions are held by European American males, and researchers (Blake, 1978; Bridges, 1996; Crase, 1994)

argue that efforts must be made to increase African American representation in higher education. Changing demographics and a growing minority population call for significant representation of minority leadership in community colleges, which play a crucial role as the number of minority students participating in higher education continues to increase (Cunningham, 1992).

While this investigator is pleased to have contributed to the field of knowledge regarding African American community college leadership, as a result of this study, it is clear that much more work is still needed. Both courage and energetic conviction of energy should be the driving forces toward further exploration. In conclusion, at least two other assertions are still noteworthy here. What was proclaimed by Roueche et al. (1989) more than a decade and a half ago is absolutely as valid today as it was then: “successful leadership is the ability of the community college CEO to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of others by working with and through them in order to accomplish the college’s mission and purpose” (p. 11). Similarly, the observations by Phelps et al. (1997) remain equally critical today. They noted then that key college personnel are cognizant of the need for more representation of minority leaders in the academy. They report that:

Presidents of a minority racial, ethnic, or gender group may . . . provide inspiring role models for students, employees, and community residents; add important voices to dialogues concerning personnel issues, including staff development, curriculum changes, teaching excellence, and student success;

and promote community relationships and commitments, enriching all associated with the college and its community. (p. 1)

This study provides a better understanding of African American leadership styles and it contributes valuable information for community college search committees interviewing perspective African American candidates for presidential positions. Moreover, it is hoped that it will dispel the myths that minorities are not competent to handle top administrative responsibilities.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Date

Participant's Address

Dear Dr.

My name is Clarence "Chip" Ates. I am an African American doctoral student in the Community College Leadership Program at The University of Texas at Austin. I am collecting data concerning the perceptions of top African American educational leaders in two-year institutions regarding their leadership style and use of power within their organization as my doctoral dissertation project. This study is important because it will add to the body of knowledge regarding African-American leadership in higher educational organizations. This study also will begin to fill the gap in community college literature and furnish a background for further research regarding African American executive leadership. In order for me to collect this very important data I cordially ask for your assistance. Please take a few minutes to fill out the enclosed material in this envelope.

You will find enclosed in this envelope:

- a. A copy of the Participants' Demographic Information Form.
- b. The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description Form.
- c. The Power Perception Profile.
- d. A return self-addressed envelope.

After completing the appropriate forms, please return them in the self-addressed envelope. Your input is greatly appreciated and it will help me in completing the requirements for my doctoral dissertation. Once again, thank you very much Dr. for taking time out of your busy schedule to help me in this endeavor.

If you have any questions please contact me at:

xxx-xxx-xxx (work)

xxx-xxx-xxx (home)

Fax # xxx-xxx-xxx.

E-mail: xxxxx@xxxxx.xxx

If you have any concerns regarding the ethical dimensions of this study, please contact my committee chair and mentor, Dr. Donald Phelps at The University of Texas at Austin, Community College Leadership Program.

Very truly,

Clarence "Chip" Ates

APPENDIX C



LEAD

SELF

Leadership Style/Perception of Self

Developed by Center for Leadership Studies, Inc.

Your name Matthew Davis

PURPOSE

This instrument is used to evaluate the leadership behaviors you use when you are engaged in attempts to influence the actions and attitudes of others.

The information gathered with the *LEAD Self* provides insight into your current strengths--and areas for your leadership skill development. It supplies information about which leadership behaviors you use and the extent to which you match those behaviors to the needs of others.

This instrument is from the participant's perspective. It is usually administered during the session before the Situational Leadership model is taught.

To obtain data on how the leader's attempts to influence are experienced, use the *LEAD Others*.

To process the *LEAD* data, use the *LEAD Directions* (*Directions for Self-Scoring and Analysis*).

emphasize
"would" not "should"

INSTRUCTIONS - Using the Instrument

- Assume you are involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions you person might initiate.
- Read each item carefully.
- Think about what you would do in each circumstance.
- Circle the letter of the alternative action choice you think most closely describes what behavior you would use in the situation presented.
- Circle only *one* choice.
- Circle a choice for *each* of the twelve situations. Don't skip any.
- Move through the items quickly and stick with the first choice you make on each item. Your first choice tends to be the most accurate one.

Reminder: Circle what you think you *would* do, not what you *should* do. The goal is to evaluate what behaviors you *actually* use--not to get *right answers*. If there is no alternative action that describes what you would do in the situation, circle the item that *most closely* resembles what you would do.

Leadership Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

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1. SITUATION

Your followers are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.

There are three situations depicting each of the four readiness levels.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.
- B. Make yourself available for discussion but not push your involvement.
- C. Talk with followers and then set goals.
- D. Intentionally not intervene.

2. SITUATION

The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.
- B. Take no definite action.
- C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved.
- D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.

3. SITUATION

Members of your group are unable to solve a problem. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Work with the group and together engage in problem solving.
- B. Let the group work it out.
- C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
- D. Encourage the group to work on the problem and be supportive of their efforts.

4. SITUATION

You are considering a change. Your followers have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but not be too directive.
- B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.
- C. Allow the group to formulate its own direction.
- D. Incorporate group recommendations, but direct the change yourself.

5. SITUATION

The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their task done on time.

In some situations performance is falling . . .

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Allow the group to formulate its own direction.
- B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
- C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.
- D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but not be too directive.

6. SITUATION

You stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.

in others, there are developmental opportunities.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved.
- B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
- C. Intentionally not intervene.
- D. Get the group involved in decision making, but see that objectives are met.

Situations were designed to reflect challenges common to leadership:

7. SITUATION

You are considering changing to a structure that will be new to your group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.

- *needed changes*

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Define the change and supervise carefully.
- B. Participate with the group in developing the change, but allow members to organize the implementation.
- C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation.
- D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.

8. SITUATION

Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat insecure about your lack of direction of the group.

- *routine task going well*

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Leave the group alone.
- B. Discuss the situation with the group and then initiate necessary changes.
- C. Take steps to direct followers toward working in a well-defined manner.
- D. Be supportive in discussing the situation with the group, but not too directive.

9. SITUATION

Your boss has appointed you to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially, they have the talent necessary to help.

- *inherited problems*

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Let the group work out its problems.
- B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
- C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.
- D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but not push.

10. SITUATION

Your followers, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.

- *resistance*

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but not take control.
- B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully.
- C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave the situation alone.
- D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.

11. SITUATION

You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.

- *promotion*

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Take steps to direct followers working in a well defined manner.
- B. Involve followers in decision making and reinforce good contributions.
- C. Discuss past performance with the group and then examine the need for new practices.
- D. Continue to leave the group alone.

12. SITUATION

Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among followers. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.

- *temptation to rescue*

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

You would . . .

- A. Try out your solution with followers and examine the need for new practices.
- B. Allow group members to work it out themselves.
- C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
- D. Participate in discussion of problem while providing support for followers.

APPENDIX D



POWER PERCEPTION PROFILE

Perception of Self

by Dr. Paul Hersey and Dr. Walter E. Natemeyer
Developed by Center for Leadership Studies, Inc.

Your Name Pat Roberts

PURPOSE

This instrument is designed to provide information about your use of various types of power as the basis of your attempts to influence others.

The *Power Perception Profile of Self* includes five parts: completing the instrument, power choice scoring, your power choice profile, power comparison scoring, and power comparison profile.

PART I: Instructions for completing the instrument

- Listed below are 21 pairs of reasons people give for following leaders' directions and decisions.
- Allocate 3 points between the two choices in each pair. Base your point allocations on which alternative you judge to be more important as a reason that others follow you.
- Allocate the points between the first item and the second item based on perceived importance as shown

in the examples below, making sure that the numbers assigned to each pair add up to 3:

3 A	2 C	1 E	0 G
0 B	1 D	2 F	3 H

Others respond to my leadership attempts because:

1.	2 A	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment and experience.
	1 B	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
2.	1 C	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
	2 D	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct others' work activities.
3.	2 E	I can provide rewards to those who cooperate with me.
	1 F	They realize I am supported by influential and important individuals.
4.	0 G	I can administer negative consequences to those who do not cooperate with me.
	3 F	They realize I am supported by influential and important individuals.
5.	3 E	I can provide rewards to those who cooperate with me.
	0 G	I can administer negative consequences to those who do not cooperate with me.
6.	1 F	They realize I am supported by influential and important individuals.
	2 A	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment and experience.
7.	1 B	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
	2 D	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct others' work activities.

8.	1 C	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
	2 E	I can provide rewards to those who cooperate with me.
9.	1 G	I can administer negative consequences to those who do not cooperate with me.
	2 A	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment and experience.
10.	2 F	They realize I am supported by influential and important individuals.
	1 B	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
11.	1 A	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment and experience.
	2 D	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct others' work activities.
12.	2 B	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
	1 G	I can administer negative consequences to those who do not cooperate with me.
13.	2 D	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct others' work activities.
	1 F	They realize I am supported by influential and important individuals.
14.	1 C	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
	2 A	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment and experience.
15.	0 G	I can administer negative consequences to those who do not cooperate with me.
	3 D	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct others' work activities.
16.	2 F	They realize I am supported by influential and important individuals.
	1 C	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
17.	1 A	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment and experience.
	2 E	I can provide rewards to those who cooperate with me.
18.	2 B	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
	1 C	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
19.	2 D	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct others' work activities.
	1 E	I can provide rewards to those who cooperate with me.
20.	2 C	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
	1 G	I can administer negative consequences to those who do not cooperate with me.
21.	2 B	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
	1 E	I can provide rewards to those who cooperate with me.

Read the following description of the power bases to interpret your perception of your influence attempts.

POWER BASES

- A. **Expert Power.** The perception that the leader has relevant education, experience, and expertise.
- B. **Information Power.** The perceived access to - or possession of - useful information.
- C. **Referent Power.** The perceived attractiveness of interacting with the leader.
- D. **Legitimate Power.** The perception that it is appropriate for the leader to make decisions due to title, role, or position in the organization..
- E. **Reward Power.** The perceived ability to provide things that people would like to have.
- F. **Connection Power.** The perceived association of the leader with influential persons or organizations.
- G. **Coercive Power.** The perceived ability to provide sanctions, punishment or consequences for not performing.

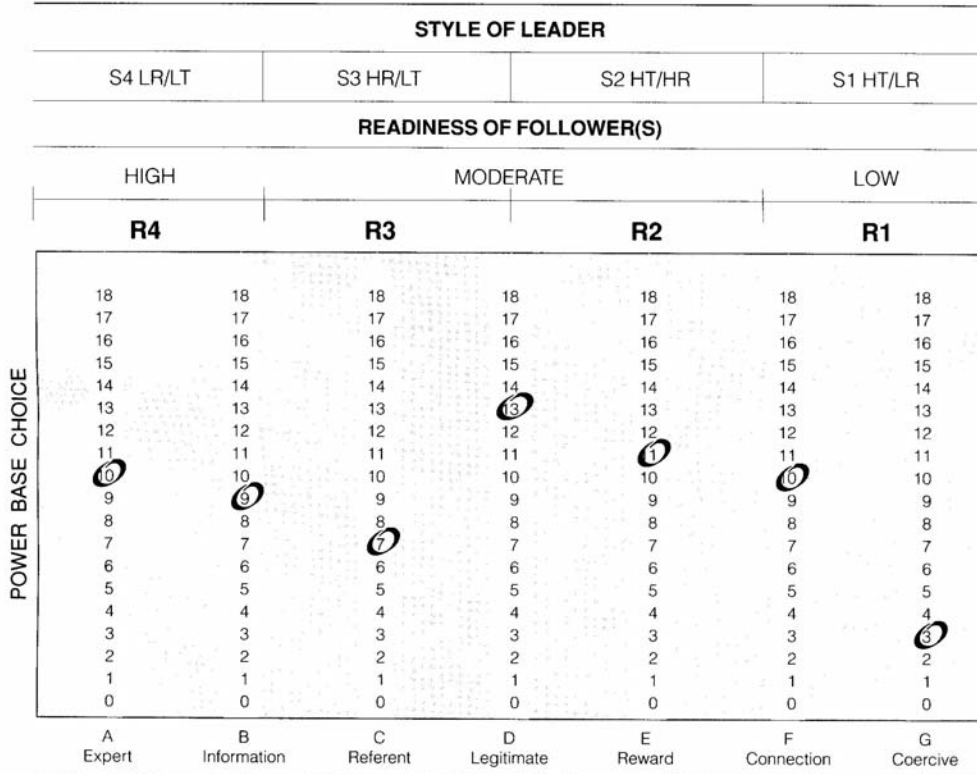
PART II: Power Choice Scoring: Reflects your perception of your uses of power

- Refer to the 21 pairs of Part I and add the points you gave to each of the A, B, C, D, E, F, and G choices.
- Enter the total points from each choice category into the boxes below. The sum of the boxes equals 63.

TOTALS: $\boxed{10} + \boxed{9} + \boxed{7} + \boxed{13} + \boxed{11} + \boxed{10} + \boxed{3} = 63$

PART III: Power Choice Profile: Shows relative strength of the power bases you use

- Transfer your point totals from Part II onto the graph below by circling the corresponding numbers on each vertical scale.
- Draw a line to connect the circled numbers to complete your profile.
- Note the relative strength of each of your power bases.
- Relate your power profile to your followers' over-all readiness to perform and to your leadership style profile.



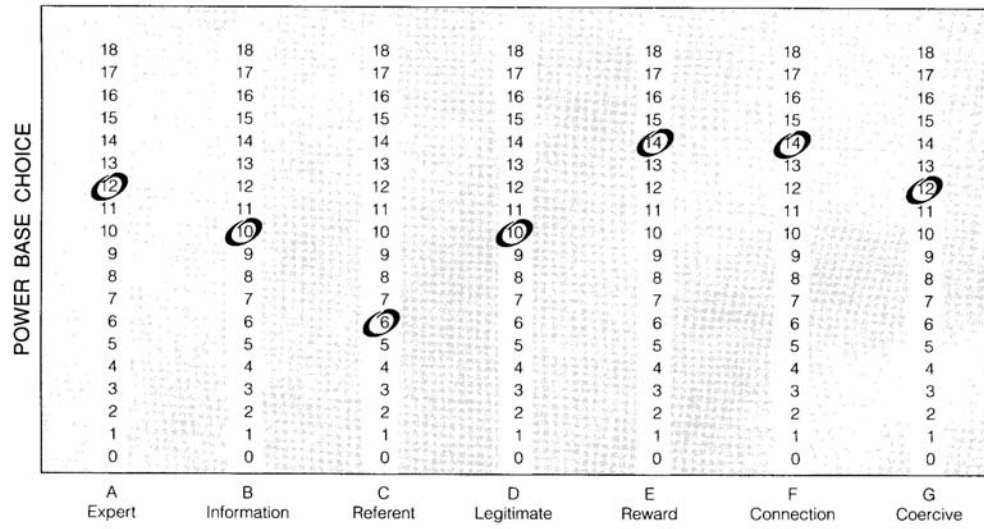
PART IV: Power Comparison Scoring

- To compare your power bases to your perception of other leaders' use of power in similar positions or roles, circle the appropriate number from 0 to 18 on the following horizontal scales.

	Significantly less than others	Somewhat less than others	About the same as others	Somewhat more than others	Significantly more than others					
A. EXPERT	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
B. INFORMATION	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
C. REFERENT	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
D. LEGITIMATE	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
E. REWARD	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
F. CONNECTION	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
G. COERCIVE	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18

PART V: Power Comparison Profile

- Transfer the circled numbers from Part IV to the graph below by circling the corresponding number for each vertical scale.
- Draw a straight line to connect the circled numbers to complete the profile of other leaders' use of power.



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VITA

Clarence Edward Ates was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, on July 18, 1948, to Homer and Gladys Ates. After graduating from Deer Park High School in Hamilton County, Ohio in 1967, he attended Oakwood College. He majored in Business Administration and received a Bachelor of Science degree in June of 1971. He earned a Master of Science degree in Student Personnel and Guidance from Oklahoma State University in 1973. In 1973 Clarence became Director of Counseling at Oakwood College where his responsibilities included supervision of the college's counseling, placement, and testing center, and veteran's affairs until 1976.

In 1976 he moved to Dallas, Texas, and began working at the University of Texas at Dallas as a Student Development Specialist. His responsibilities included academic programming for the undergraduate college.

In 1978 Mr. Ates became a Faculty Counselor at North Lake College in Irving, Texas. His responsibilities included personal and career counseling, academic advising, personal and career assessment and testing, articulation and transfer, and teaching Student Development and Psychology courses.

In 1999 he became an administrative dean and his duties include providing administrative leadership in the Division of Computer Information Technology. A few of his awards include: (a) 1998 Noel-Levitz Retention Excellence Award; (b) 1998 and 1994 National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development (NISOD) Excellence

Award; (c) 1997/98 Innovator of the Year--Dallas County Community College District/League for Innovation in the Community College; (d) 1993 Jean Sharon Griffith Student Development Leadership Award.

In 1994 Mr. Ates entered the Community College Leadership Program at the University of Texas at Austin.

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This dissertation was typed by the author.